ED 109 810

EA 007 398

TITLE

Eliminating Sex Discrimination in Schools: A Source

INSTITUTION

North Carolina State Dept. of Public Instruction,

Raleigh. Research and Information Center.

PUB DATE NOTE

May 75 154p.

EDRS PRICE DESCRIPTORS

MF-\$0.76 HC-\$8.24 PLUS POSTAGE

Annotated Bibliographies; Educational Legislation;

Elementary Secondary Education: *Equal Opportunities

(Jobs); *Nondiscriminatory Education; *School Statistics: *Sex Discrimination: *Sex Stereotypes:

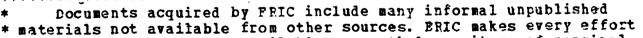
Tables (Data)

IDENTÎPIERS

*North Carolina

ABSTRACT

This source book is designed to help educators at all levels to eliminate sex discrimination by identifying discriminatory practices and replacing them with practices guaranteeing equal opportunity. The book raises significant issues and summarizes pertinent information related to all types of sex discrimination in elementary and secondary education. Although most of the statistical data presented refers specifically to the situation in North Carolina, most of the problems identified and suggestions offered throughout the book will be useful to educators in other states as well. The book is organized in three major sections devoted respectively to sex discrimination in various components of the school, school board members and educational employees, and suggestions and resources for eliminating sex discrimination in the schools. A fairly extensive annotated bibliography of relevant publications is included in the final section. (Author/JG)



supplied by EDPS are the best that can be made from the original.



^{*} to obtain the best copy available. nevertheless, items of marginal * reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality

of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available

via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not responsible for the quality of the original document. Peproductions

US DEPARTMENT OF MEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION OF GIN
ATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

ELIMINATING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN SCHOOLS

A Source Book

Research and Information Center
State Department of Public Instruction
Raleigh, North Carolina
May, 1975

EA 667 39

C.

うこ

دي ايا

FOREWORD

The public schools have a legal and moral responsibility to help each student develop his/her intellectual, emotional, and physical abilities to the fullest extent possible. Unfortunately, as this source book explains, the schools have sometimes neglected this responsibility by limiting the opportunities of many girls and boys because of their gender. Also, in some cases, discriminatory practices by educational institutions at all levels have been a factor in limiting the number of female administrators and athletic directors as well as the number of male secretaries, librarians, and early childhood teachers.

In fairness to dedicated educators over the years, sex discrimination in the schools has rarely been a planned philosophy or program, maliciously designed to hurt people of either sex. Instead, discriminatory practices reflect generations of attitudes and customs which have restricted members of each sex to certain occupational, family, and social roles. Traditionally, certain opportunities have only been offered to one sex; and many males and females have limited their ambitions and efforts according to traditional sex-role stereotypes.

The public schools and related institutions, such as state education agencies, should not limit the opportunities of people because of their sex, nor cause people to limit themselves. Such practices greatly harm the individuals involved and our society in general. World problems and the personal tragedy of wasted talent demand that all options be opened to all people, regardless of their sex, race, or economic background.

The North Carolina Department of Public Instruction has launched the following major thrusts designed to eliminate discriminatory practices and guarantee equal opportunity:

Through long-range planning under the continuing leadership of Mr. Dudley Flood, Assistant State Superintendent for Human Relations and Student Affairs, the state agency is working to assure that educational programs in North Carolina will offer male and female students the same opportunities to develop their full potential. Although strategies to reach this goal are still in the formative stages, several approaches include: studying current situations, conducting workshops for teachers and administrators, developing models, enlisting community support, and asking school superintendents to designate a liaison person within each school unit to be a contact concerning development strategies to counter sex bias.

A committee directed by Mr. James Burch, Assistant State Superintendent for Special Services, is drafting an affirmative action program for the state agency designed to increase the number of minority and female employees, particularly in professional positions.



ii

An exciting program entitled "New Pioneers," under the direction of Ms. Amanda Smith, a member of the Occupational Education Division staff, is working toward the elimination of sex bias in occupational education by (a) organizing research units in ten varied school systems which will seek to identify discriminatory practices and devise ways to open all programs to all students, (b) helping state agency consultants in all occupational education areas to develop specific strategies for eliminating sex bias in occupational education programs, and (c) providing information about sex bias to educators and other concerned citizens throughout the state.

The fourth major effort of the state agency to eliminate sex discrimination is this source book. The enclosed material is designed to help educators at all levels to identify discriminatory practices and to replace these practices with equal opportunity. While it does not include all relevant data, this source book does raise significant issues and summarizes pertinent information concerning sex bias in elementary and secondary education. Of particular importance is the current data included about the situation in North Carolina.

This material does more than document the existence of sex bias. It provides specific, practical suggestions and resources which teachers, guidance counselors, coaches, school administrators, school board members, teacher educators, as well as parents and students, can consider and use in correcting the situation.

The journey toward equal opportunity will require honesty, openness, patience, and a willingness to work together. This source book is a firm step on that vital journey.

A. Craig Paillips

State Superintendent of Public Instruction



TABLE OF CONTENTS

• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Page
FOREWORD BY DR. A. CRAIG PHILLIPS, NORTH CAROLINA SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
OVERVIEW	'iii
Identifying Discriminatory Practices	/iii x
THOUGHT-PROVOKING QUOTATIONS	xii
POEMS	XV
Free to BeYou and Me	`xv xvi
GLOSSARY	xvii
PART I	
SEX DISCRIMINATION IN VARIOUS COMPONENTS OF THE SCHOOL	
THE IMPORTANCE OF NON-SEXIST LANGUAGE	3
Language and Sexism	6
SEXIST HUMOR	1
Sexist Humor and What It Says About Women	1: 1: 1: 1:
SEX BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS	1
Responsibility of Educators for Sex Bias in Instructional Materials	1: 1: 1: 2:
iv 5	



TABLE OF CONTENTS, continued

•		·					Page
Review of Literature on Instructional Materials		•					20
Criteria for Evaluating Materials Relative to Sexis							24
General Guidelines for Text and Illustrations						•	25
Sources of Non-Sexist Materials							27
							28
Selected References	. •	•	•	•	•	•	40
SEX DIFFERENCES IN ACADEMIC ABILITY AND					,		
SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT	•	•	•	•	•	•	29
Poem: ''What Are Little Boys Made Of?''							31
The Problem of Sex Differences in Academic Ability							70
and Achievement	• •	•	٠	•	•	•	32
Verbal Ability in Girls and Boys							32
Mathematical Ability in Girls and Boys		•	•	•	•	•	34
Sex Differences in School Achievements				·			34
Selected References		•	•	•	•	•	36
SEX BIAS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS		•	•	•	•	•	41
Separate Physical Education and Athletic Programs							43
Discrimination Against Girls		Ť	•		_		44
Current Emphases as Barriers for Boys	•	•	•	•	•	•	46
							47
Potential Significance of Title IX							
Selected References	• , •	•	•	•	•	•	48
in North Carolina 1974-1975							49
SEX BIAS IN OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION							53
Poem: "My Dog Is a Plumber"							53
Separate Courses for Girls and Boys			_	_		_	55
Signs of Change	• •	•	٠	•	•	٠	56
Common of Common and Common in Newth Compliant	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Survey of Occupational Courses in North Carolina	• •	•	•	•	•	•	. 57
SEX BIAS IN HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING	• •	•	٠,	•	•	•	61
The Role of the High School Guidance Counselor .							6 3
Sex Bias on the Part of High School Guidance Couns							63
Sex Bias in Career Interest Inventories							68
Research Studies with Implications for Counselors	•	•	•	•	•	•	71
							73
Facts that Counselors Should Know About Women Work							
Specific Suggestions for Counselors	• •	•	٠	•	•	•	77
Selected References							78



TABLE OF CONTENTS, continued

																•				Page
٠					PAT	ťΤ	ΙI	L												
	SCHOOL	BOARD	MEM	BERS	AN 8	I D	E D	UCA	TIC	ANC	L	EMI	PLC	YE	ES					
SECTION A:	WOMEN C	ON SCHO	OOL I	BOAI	RDS					•		•		•	•					83
Women - Wh	o Are S	rving	on .	Scho	001	.Bo	ar	ds .	•		.• .	. •	. ,			٠,		•		83
Comparis	on of Fe	emale a	and	Male	е Во	oar	d l	Mem	be:	rs										83
Qualific	ations	for Be	ing	a Fe	ema]	le	Sc	hoo	1	Boa	ırd	M	emt	e i						84
Treatmen	t of Fe	males	on S	cho	ol l	Boa	rd	s.												84
Reasons	for Few	Female	e Sci	hoo	1 Bo	oar	d	Mem	be	rs										85
Footnote	es			•		•	•				•		•		•	•		•	•	87
SECTION B:	PROFESS	STONAL	EMP	LOY	EES	IN	L	OCA	L											
PUBLIC S	CHOOLS					•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•		•	•		88
Race by	Sex											•						٠		88
Position	hv Sex		•			•		·, ·												88
Position Education	nal Lev	el by :	Sex		• •	•				•	•						•			89
School F	Ynerien	ce by	Sev	•	• •	•	•	•	·	•	•	•				•				90
Certific	antion I	ovol h	V CA	ν'	• •	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	·	•	·	·	92
Marital	C+o+uc	hy Car	y 3e	^	• •	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	93
Tables	Status	by Sex		•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	94
Footnote	· · · ·					:			•	•	•			•			•		•	102
	•	. •																		
SECTION C:																				
PUBLIC 1	INSTRUCT	ION .		•		•	•		•	•	•、	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	104
Race and	l Sex of	Emp 1o	vees	in	th	e S	Sta	te	Aσ	end	2V									104
Position	n hv Sex	of Em	nlov	200	in	th	16	St a	ite	A	-, Jer	cv	•							
Highest	Educati	onal I	evel	s h	v S	e x	.ი იf	En	ın l	0 V 6	, e.	i	n ·	the			·	·	•	
	e Agency																			10
Salarie	s by Sex	of Em	nlav		'n	+1		St s	te	Δ.	Ter	·	•	•		•	•	•		
Female	and Male	Coneu	proj 1 t an	te	in	Se 1	lec	tec	חו	127	i e i	Ωn	e 1	n f	th	٠.	•	٠	·	
	e Agency																			109
	e Agency																			• • •
rootnot	es			•	• •	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•	110
SECTION D:	POSSIB	LE REA	SONS	FO	R F	EW	WO	MEN	I	N A	A DN	4IN	IS	TRA	AT I	VE				
	NS																			112
. 551110.		• • •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		-	•	-		•	•		•	
Oualifi	cations	of Wom	en f	or	Adm	ini	ist	rat	iν	e l	Pos	sit	io	ns						11.
•	of Women																			116
	ination																	•		118
	es																	•	•	119
רטטנווטנו				•		•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•	11.



TABLE OF CONTENTS, continued \cdot

	Page
PART III	
SUGGESTIONS AND RESOURCES FOR ELIMINATING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN THE SCHOOLS	
TOTAL AMERICAN PROUTE PROTECTION OF PROCEEDINGS AND THE	
LEGISLATION PROHIBITING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATION	. 125
	127
Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972	
Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964	
Executive Order Number 11246, as Amended by Number 11375	129
Equal Pay Act of 1963	. 130
Equal Rights Amendment	. 130
CONTROL CUICANT TO CONTROL TO THE TAXABLE CONTROL CONT	
SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS FOR ELIMINATING SEX DISCRIMINATION .	120
IN EDUCATION	. 132
	170
In State Departments of Education	. 132
In Local Education Agencies	. 155
In Schools of Education	
In Individual Schools	. 134
"HOW SEXIST ARE YOU?": A TEST FOR TEACHERS	. 137
•	
ORGANIZATIONS WORKING TO ELIMINATE SEXISM IN EDUCATION	. 139
National Organizations	. 139
National Organizations	. 140
SELECTED, ANNOTATED READINGS ON SEX DISCRIMINATION	. 141
ERIC Documents	. 141
Books and Pamphlets	. 144
Journal Articles	. 147
A-V Materials	



OVERVIEW

Sex discrimination is limiting a person's opportunities, rewards, or status in society on the basis of his/her sex. The North Carolina Department of Public Instruction believes that sex discrimination is wrong and has no legitimate place in the public schools. Therefore, the Department has prepared this source book in order to help educators at all levels to:

- identify discriminatory practices in the schools; and,
- plan and carry out immediate action to eliminate such practices and guarantee equal opportunity to students of both sexes.

Identifying Discriminatory Practices

Sex discrimination neither begins nor ends in the schools. According to many sources, traditional sex-role stereotyping limits the opportunities and aspirations of both sexes throughout life.

As these sources explain, parents and others in the environment teach females and males how they should act and feel as members of their particular sex. Traditionally, these lessons suggest that boys are strong, but girls are weak; that boys are brave, but girls are afraid; that boys can take care of themselves, but girls need to be taken care of; that boys are rational, but girls are emotional; that boys are competitive, but girls are passive; that boys are mechanically-minded, but girls are socially-minded; that boys are aggressive, but girls are gentle; that boys lead, but girls follow; that boys grow up and pursue careers, but girls grow up and raise children; and generally that all members of the same sex have the same emotional, intellectual, and social characteristics.

Sex-role stereotyping hurts people of both sexes in two basic ways:

- 1. On the basis of such stereotypes, both sexes are frequently denied equal opportunities. For example, many businesses reserve managerial positions for men because they believe that women lack the ambition and strength needed for leadership. Likewise, few companies are willing to hire male receptionists and day care parents.
- 2. Many people of both sexes limit themselves according to traditional sex roles. For example, many women do not prepare for careers because they think that "a woman's place is in the home." Likewise, few men want to enter "feminine professions" such as nursing and kindergarten teaching, although these professions are now open to both sexes.



viii

3

According to numerous sources, schools and society tend to perpetuate sex-role stereotyping and thereby limit the opportunities and aspirations of both sexes. As explained in this source book, the specific charges against schools include the following:

- Textbooks and other instructional materials present females and males in stereotyped roles according to sex and consequently limit the aspirations of girls, impose unfair expectations on boys, and serve as a constant reproach to those youngsters whose life-styles are unlike those portrayed in the material.
- The language used both inside and outside the school reinforces sex bias and is particularly unfair to females. For example, maleoriented terms such as "mankind," "chairman," and "forefathers" are often used to refer to persons of both sexes. In addition, many people use masculine terms when the gender is unknown; e.g., "everyone did his work." Humor is one of the most subtle and most powerful ways in which people express sex bias in their language.
- The "feminine environment" of the school, and/or unfair treatment by teachers, and/or sex differences in maturation lead girls to perform better than boys in elementary school, particularly in reading. By contrast, social expectations inside and outside the school explain why boys perform better than girls in mathematics and why many girls are "afraid of success" during adolescence and later life.
- Reflecting sex bias on the part of parents and school personnel, many occupational education courses are segregated on the basis of sex. Males are concentrated in courses concerning agriculture or trades such as plumbing and electronics, while females are concentrated in home economics, child care, and clerical courses. As a result, many girls and boys are not prepared for available jobs and lackeskills they need in their personal lives.

Physical education and competitive athletic programs seldom encourage girls to develop their physical abilities. The best facilities, equipment, staff, and privileges are usually reserved for boys. In addition, these programs sometimes discourage boys of low ability, ignore boys of average ability, and harm boys of high ability by an excessive emphasis on winning. Sex-segregated activities may prevent students from developing natural, satisfying relationships with members of the opposite sex.

- Guidance counselors do not always encourage girls to value and develop their intellectual abilities or to prepare for personally satisfying and financially rewarding careers. In addition, they often channel students of both sexes into those occupations traditionally considered "appropriate" for their sex.
- A Most school administrators are men. This fact may reflect a history of discriminatory hiring practices and the fact that many women do not prepare for or pursue such positions because they consider it



ix

inconsistent with the female role and/or because they believe that their abilities will be ignored. With few women in administrative positions, students are denied a valuable opportunity to see females in leadership roles.

According to many sources, discriminatory practices inside and outside the school damage people of both sexes throughout life. Many females, they say, lose self-confidence, bury their ambitions, waste their talents and end up in low paying, dead-end jobs or in empty, frustratin family roles. Likewise, men who do not fit the strong, aggressive mas aline image frequently consider themselves failures and suppress their true interests and abilities. Many men who do fit the traditional male role suffer too by suppressing their emotions and driving themselves relentlessly toward success. Ulcers, heart-attacks, and premature death are often their rewards.

Eliminating Sex Discrimination and Guaranteeing Equal Opportunity

What should be done to eliminate sex discrimination? What are the alternatives? What does equal opportunity really mean and how can it be achieved?

Equality between the sexes does not mean that both sexes are or should be identical. Rather it means that each person, regardless of his/her gender, should be treated as a unique and significant human being.

Eliminating traditional sex roles does not mean that people should deny physical and emotional relationships with members of the opposite sex. Rather it means that people should not be stereotyped and that individuals should treat each other with mutual respect and consideration.

"Women's liberation" does not mean that marriage and motherhood are bad or that all women should have careers. It does not mean that all men are villains or that all women are saints. Rather. "women's liberation" is part of "people liberation" in which all people of both sexes can pursue their interests and develop their abilities to the fullest extent possible, both inside and outside the home.

While a society without sex discrimination is rayllic, it is not impossible. Of all existing institutions, the schools have the greatest opportunity to teach young citizens that equality between the sexes is right and of tremendous importance to everyone.

How can the schools teach these lessons and help all girls and boys to reach their full potential as human beings? The first step is awareness. Educators must honestly and openly examine their schools and themselves to identify discriminatory practices and attitudes. What opportunities are limited to one sex? What messages are students receiving from instructional materials, guidance counselors, school administrators, coaches, and teachers? How are these messages affecting the confidence, ambition, and performance of girls and boys both now and in the future?



Х

With honest answers to these questions, educators should then eliminate those practices which limit students on the basis of their sex. Recent legislation, particularly Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, describes what schools must do in order to remedy past injustices and guarantee equal opportunity for both sexes in the future. By voluntarily obeying these laws, schools can prevent legal action and possible cut-off of federal funds. Moreover, they can find the best solutions to their local problems by taking the initiative. Hopefully, educators will care enough about their students to satisfy both the letter and the spirit of new civil rights legislation.

Material in this source book is designed to help educators at all levels to (1) identify discriminatory attitudes and practices and (2) plan and implement continuing action to eliminate these practices and guarantee equal opportunity for students of both sexes. To those who refuse to be lieve that sex discrimination exists or that equal opportunity for both sexes is portant, this source book will mean nothing. To those who would rather talk about a problem than find a solution for it, this material will be an interesting conversation piece. But to those who genuinely want ally girls and boys to pursue their interests and develop their abilities to the fullest degree possible, this source book will be a catalyst and an ally.



THOUGHT-PROVOKING QUOTATIONS

"...to the extent that either sex is disadvantaged, the whole culture is poorer...the more whole the culture, the more whole each member, each man, each woman, each child will be."

--Margaret Mead

"The underutilization of American women continues to be the most tragic and senseless waste of this century."

--Lyndon B. Johnson

'The essential differences between the sexes will never disappear; nature will see to that. The essential attraction between man and woman will never disappear; nature will see to that. The school's and society's job is to provide an atmosphere in which each male and female can develop fully as a person for the benefit of everyone."

--June Heinrich

"Woman, as the servant of man, needs little education--some physical excrcises to keep her healthy for child-bearing and some singing and dancing to entertain men."

--Rousseau (18th century)

"If all the rare go as that resides in human brains, including female brains, had been utilized, might we have a cure for cancer, or a cure for the aging of male blood vessels? Excellent minds are so rare. Can we afford to waste any?"

--Dr. Estelle Ramey, President
Association of Women in Science

"Sex discrimination touches all women in our society--young and old, married and unmarried, homemakers and wage earners. The Equal Rights Amendment would signify a national commitment to eliminate sex discrimination."

--Carl Albert, Speaker of the House of Representatives, U. S. Congress

xii

13



"The principle which regulates the existing relations between the sexes is wrong in itself and is now one of the chief hindrances to human improvement; and it ought to be replaced by a principle of perfect equality, admitting no power or privilege on the one side, nor disability on the other."

-- John Stuart Mill, 1867

"Our society needs men who are not limited to the so-called tougher masculine characteristics of aggressiveness and dominance. It needs men who are capable of showing the more 'feminine' traits of warmth and sensitivity to others."

--Dr. Stanley F. Yolles

Boys have trucks. Girls have dolls.
Boys are doctors. Girls are nurses.
Boys are presidents. Girls are first ladies.
Boys fix things. Girls need things fixed.
Boys build houses. Girls keep houses.

--Whitney Darrow (from children's book, I'M GLAD I'M A BOY, I'M GLAD I'M A GIRL)

"School not only socialize children in a general way but also exert a power ful and limiting influence on the development of sex roles. Instead of encouraging diversity within broad limits of conduct, they define specific attitudes, modes of acting, and opportunities which are appropriate for boys and girls. This serves to limit the choices open to each sex and contributes to a sense of inadequacy when individuals do not live up to the stringently defined norm or average."

--Terry N. Saario

"If the discipline and pursuit of excellence deriving from athletics are so worthy, then why is it that such benefits are only extended to 49% of the population? Why is it that women's sports programs in the public schools receive only about 1% of what men's programs receive?"

--Billie Jean King (Testifying before the U. S.\ Senate Education Subcommittee)

"What are little girls made of? Sugar and spice and everything nice. That's what little girls are made of."

--Nursery Rhyme

ERIC

"My woman, she's under my thumb.
And it's all right."

--Mick Jagger

"The man over there says that women need to be helped into carriages and lifted over ditches, and to have the best place everywhere. Nobody ever helps me into carriages or over puddles or gives me the best place; and ain't I a woman?"

--Sojourner Truth, 1848 (Slave)

"All men are created equal."

--Thomas Jefferson

"A little girl is treated and molded differently from a little boy from the day she is born."

--Benjamin Spock

"Many of us experience feminism as a religious conversion--a leap into belief. Suddenly a lot that was cloudy becomes very clear. What one is left with is a determination no longer to be a complicitor in one's own victimization."

--Barbara G. Harrison

"Our brains weigh the same; it's our paychecks that are slim and ladylike."

-- Maggie Savoy

AND

A woman's place is in the home/Housewives are such dull people/Women's talk is all chatter/Intelligent women are emasculating/If you're so smart why aren't you married/ Can you type?/If you want to make decisions in this family, go out and earn a paycheck yourself/Working women are unfeminine/A smart woman never shows her brains/It is a woman's duty to make herself attractive/All women think about are clothes/Women should be struck regularly, like gongs/Women are always playing hard to get/No man likes an easy woman/ Women are always crying about something/Women don't understand the value of a dollar/Don't worry your pretty little head about it/Dumb broad/It is glorious to be the mother of all mankind/A woman's work is never done/All you do is cook and clean and sit around all day/Women are only interested in trapping some man/A woman who can't hold a man isn't much of a womar, Women hate to be with other women/ Women are always off chattering with each other/It's a man's world/Behind every great man, there's a great woman...



FREE TO BE...YOU AND ME

There's a land that I see Where the children are free. And I say it ain't far To this land, from where we are.

Take my hand. Come with me, Where the children are free. Come with me, take my hand, And we'll live...

I see a land, bright and clear, And the time's coming near, When we'll live in this land, You and me, hand-in-hand.

Take my hand. Come along, Lend your voice to my song. Come along. Take my hand, Sing a song...

Every boy in this land Grows to be his own man. In this land, every girl Grows to be her own woman.

Take my hand. Come with me, Where the children are free. Come with me. Take my hand, And we'll rum...

In a land
Where the river runs free(In a land)
Through the green country(In a land)
To a shining sea.

And you and me Are free to be You and me.

For a land
Where the river runs free(For a land)
Through the green country(For a land)
To a shining sea-(For a land)
Where the horses run free.

And you and me Are free to be You and me.

To a land
Where the river runs free-(To a land)
Through the green country-(To a land)
To a shining sea-(To a land)
Where the horses run free-(To a land)
Where the children are free.

And you and me Are free to be You and me.

And you and me Are free to be You and me.

-Reprinted with permission of the Free to be Foundation, Inc.



THE SUN AND THE MOON

by Elaine Laron

The Sun is filled with shining light It blazes far and wide The Moon reflects the sunlight back But has no light inside.

I think I'd rather be the Sun That shines so bold and bright Than be the Moon, that only glows With someone else's light.

-Reprinted with permission of the Free to be Foundation, Inc.

xvi

75

GLOSSARY

- ERA The Equal Rights Amendment is a proposed amendment to the United States Constitution. It simply says, "Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex." In 1972 Congress passed ERA by an almost unanimous vote. As of Fall 1974, 33 states have ratified, with only five more states needed for ERA to become the 27th amendment to the United States Constitution. Until this amendment is ratified, women are not legally persons under the Constitution.
- Ms. The "Ms." title is part of the desire to achieve equality and therefore very much a part of the women's movement. Many women feel that in business situations a woman's marital status is (or should be) irrelevant. They feel that if it is unnecessary for a man to reveal his marital status, then it should not be necessary for a woman to reveal her marital status. It challenges the assumption that a woman can only achieve identity through her relationship to a man.
- Sex Bias or Sex-Role Stereotyping The unconscious and conscious values and assumptions which stereotype the sexes and channel females and males into those interests, activities, and goals considered "appropriate" for their particular sex.
- Sex Discrimination Limiting a person's opportunities, rewards, or status on the basis of his/her sex; usually thought of as practices which can be proven, particularly in a court of lay.
- Sexism Attitudes and actions which relegate women to a secondary and in-
- Socialization The process of preparing children to assume adult statuses and roles.
- Title IX Federal law which prohibits sex discrimination in educational institutions receiving Federal funds.
- Women's Movement A major social movement which seeks full equality for all persons, regardless of sex.



xvii

PART I

SEX DISCRIMINATION IN VARIOUS COMPONENTS OF THE SCHOOL

THE HISTORY . OF MAN

HURRI CANE HAZEL

OLD MAID

man-made

HENPECKED

Man on the street

> He took it like a man

GIRL TALK

MAN IN THE MOON

THE COMMON MAN

WINT, WOMEN, AND SONG

FOUNDING **FATHERS**

GIRL FRIDAY

HUSSY

ALL MEN ARE CREATED EQUAL

THE IMPORTANCE OF NON-SEXIST LANGUAGE

-Highlights-

- Language affects the way people view themselves and others.
- According to many sources, the English language was developed by men at a time in history when women played subservient and secondary roles.
- The English language is discriminatory toward females and reinforces sexism.
- The literature reviewed for this section emphasized the following:
 - Male nouns and pronouns greatly outnumber female nouns and pronouns in almost all instructional materials.
 - The masculine words "man" and "mankind" are frequently used to describe the entire population (fifty-one percent of which is female).
 - There are few derogatory words for men in the English language but hundreds for women.
 - 7 Language used in the world of work should reflect the nature of the job rather than the sex of the worker.
 - By avoiding sexist language, school personnel can help eliminate sex role stereotyping.

THE IMPORTANCE OF NON-SEXIST LANGUAGE

"Language and our thought grooves are inextricably interrelated."
--Edward Sapir

What's in a word? Sexism, perhaps. Yet, some will ask, does it really matter? Does the language we speak affect our attitudes? Does it impose restrictions on males and females? Does it subtly imply that females are inferior? A number of researchers believe that it does all these things. By making a conscious effort to change male-centered language, much can be done to eliminate sex bias.

Language and Sexism

Language, perhaps more than any other factor, reinforces sexism. For example, referring to the entire human population with the generic term, "mankind," is discriminatory. Many of the derogatory terms in our language are female terms for which there are no parallel male words; i.e., "old maid," "shrew," "broad," "harlot," "nymphomaniac," "loose woman," "battleaxe," "hussy," and others unfit for print. The comparable male term, "sor of a bitch," is only a reflection on someone's mother. Labelling males "sissy" or "effeminate" is also a putdown of females. Further, many masculine terms imply strength, while many female terms subtly denigrate women's status. Examples include: "He acted like a man," and "Isn't she being womanish?" A factor which may account for this unfairness is the fact that our language was developed by men, since women were not educated until a century or so ago. In addition, numerous research studies indicate that male terms, such as "he," "him," "his," and "man" outnumber female terms by at least three to one in almost all instructional materials, including textbooks, reference books, and library books. Is it any wonder that females are called "the fifty-one percent minority"?

Sydney J. Harris said this in a recent column:

Language, we must remember, is not merely a "medium" of communication, the way a telephone line or a cable is a medium. Actually, the medium of language colors the message by a profound way we must be unconscious of. What we call the "real world" is built upon the language habits of the society we belong to.

When Tom Sawyer's aunt remarked of the ship explosion, "Thank God, nobody was hurt-only two niggers killed," this otherwise kindly woman was being satirized by Mark Twain for failing to see that her language equated blacks with "nobody," and unconsciously reinforced her view of the world. The scores of epithets men use about women do precisely the same--which is why Confucius advised that any real reform of society must begin with the correct use of words.



5-

Changing Language to Reflect Social Change

Language, however, is beginning to reflect social change. Already words such as "Ms.," "chairperson," and "sexist" have become accepted terms in official correspondence, dictionaries, program notes, and introductions. Many people believe that the use of the term "Ms." is actually an improvement, since it is more expedient to use this title in business correspondence when the female's marital status is unknown. More importantly, however, the use of Ms. underscores the fact that if the marital status of a man is not indicated by his title, usually "Mr.," it should not be necessary for a female to reveal her marital status.

Changing Language in the World of Work

Another area in which language is changing is in the world of work. A number of agencies are changing their occupational titles so that these do not imply the sex of the worker. Instead, it is felt that the job title should project, primarily, a mental picture of what the worker does. After all, the title attached to a job is of genuine importance. Often it is just as difficult for a female to imagine herself as a plant foreman or a salesman as it is for a male to picture himself as an airline stewardess. Practical substitutions for much of this outmoded terminology can readily. be made; for example, "plant manager" for "foreman," "salesperson" for "salesman," and "flight attendant" for "stewardess."

It is especially important that school personnel be conscious of possible sex bias in their language. By avoiding sexist language, a forward step can be made in helping to eliminate sex role stereotyping, a practice which is so detrimental to the full development and equality of both sexes. A general rule-of-thumb is that of trying not to judge the achievements of females by standards different from those by which one judges males and by discouraging language which reflects this. In most areas, gender does not affect competence.

Sexist Terms and Practical Alternatives

A few examples of sexist terms, along with some practical alternatives, are listed below. Many more may come to mind. (This would be an interesting classroom activity for encouraging students to explore their own sex biases.)

Sexi	st

Non-Sexist

mankind

human race

brotherhood

unity

Everyone did his work.

The students did their work, or everyone did his/her work.



Non-Sexist Sexist

chairperson chairman

police officer policeman

mail carrier mailman

the farm couple the farmer and his wife

human energy manpower

ancestors, precursors forefathers

woman in the Office office girl

woman (or "girl" if under 21) gal, chick, broad,

dame, doll

feminists women's libbers

women's movement women's lib

Dear Sir or Madam: Gentlemen: or

Dear Sir: (in correspondence) Dear Researchers: Dear Educators:

Dear Colleague:

(or other terms describing the

profession)

homemaker housewife

the person on the street the man on the street

John Doe and his wife John and Mary Doe

Jane Austen was an excellent novelist. Jane Austen was an excellent

woman novelist.

I could not get along without

My assistant is one of the most organized and efficient people in my girl Friday. our organization.

Billie Jean King and Jimmy Connors Jimmy Connors is one of the are among the world's best tennis best tennis players in the players. world, and Billie Jean King is one of the best women

He listened patiently while the ladies chattered.

players.

-- for a girl.

He listened patiently while the women talked.

She is a good carpenter. She is a pretty good carpenter



Selected References

Gershuny, Henny L. SEXIST SEMANTICS: AN INVESTIGATION OF MASCULINE AND FEMININE NOUNS AND PRONOUNS IN DICTIONARY SENTENCES THAT ILLUSTRATE WORD USAGE AS A REFLECTION OF SEX-ROLE. (Ph.D. Dissertation) Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1973.

Rhome, Frances D. MANGLÎSH: WHAT'S IT ALL ABOUT? Midwest Modern Language Association, 1972. (ED 077 030)

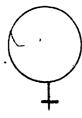
SEXISM IN SCHOOLS. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Emma Willard Task Force on Education, 1973.

Sutton, William A. SEXUAL FAIRNESS IN LANGUAGE. Muncie, Indiana: Ball State University, English Department, 1973. (ED 089 301)

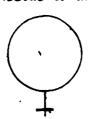
Strainchamps, Ethel. "Our Sexist Language," Chapter 16, WOMAN IN SEXIST SOCIETY, edited by Vivian Gornick and Barbara K. Moran. New York: Basic Books, 1971.



Last night my date asked me to marry him and make him happy.



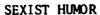
Which did you decide to do?



I'm a selfmade man.



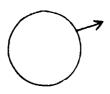
You're lucky. I'm the revised product of a wife and two daughters.



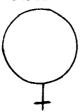
-Highlights-

- . Many jokes degrade women.
- .. Some jokes about women which appear to be compliments may, in fact, be insults.
 - . Jokes about "effeminate" males may cause life-long scars.
- . Jokes which degrade and hurt people are not funny.

I wonder why a girl can't catch a ball like a man.



Oh, a man is so much bigger and easier to catch.



I haven't spoken to my wife in two weeks.



Whassa matter? Mad at her?

Nope, I'm afraid to interrupt.



25

SEXIST HUMOR

While more and more people are becoming sensitive to racial and ethnic slurs, few people are sensitive to slurs made in jest about women and occasionally made about men. Sexist humor is so commonplace and accepted by so many people that it is rarely noticed. The purpose of this article is to acquaint the reader with different forms of sexist humor and point out some of the reasons why such humor is harmful.

Sexist Humor and What It Says About Women

The following appeared in an official educational newsletter:

A Chemical Description of Woman

Symbol: Wo

Accepted Atomic Weight: 115 pounds

Physical Properties: Boils at nothing; freezes at any minute; melts when

properly handled; very bitter if mistreated.

Occurrence: Abundant wherever man is found; seldom exists in the free

state.

Chemical Properties: Very active; possesses a strong affinity for gold,

platinum, and precious stones; able to absorb great amounts of expensive food matter; turns green when placed next to a better speciman; ages rapidly.

Uses: Highly ornamental; useful as a tonic under certain conditions; an

equalizer in the distribution of wealth; probably the most power-

ful income-reducing agent.

Caution: Highly explosive in inexperienced hands.

Variations: Basic structures are patterned after those of the original

model (Eve - Mark I) but there are many isotopes and config-

urations; will vary from "WOW" to "Reject."

"A Chemical Description of Woman" is an excellent example of sexist humor. Intended to be cute and clever, it stereotypes women as irrational, greedy, and vain, and as objects to be "properly handled." Particularly disturbing is the fact that this piece was printed in an official educational newsletter which was distributed to numerous schools in a statewide area.

The following list offers some other obvious examples of sexist humor and what it says about women.

11



29

WOMEN ARE STUPID

Dorothy: I have a very literary boyfriend. He recommended Einstein's THE THEORY OF RELATIVITY as a very interesting book.

Lou: Have you read it yet?

Dorothy: No, I'm waiting for the movie.

WOMEN ARE VAIN

Jackson and his wife were doing a little flyswatting around the house.

How many have you killed? She:

Six, three males and three females: You silly; how could you tell if they She:

were males or females?

He: Easy, my dear, three were on the apple

pie and three were on the mirror.

WOMEN TALK ALL THE TIME

I haven't spoken to my wife in weeks. Bill:

Sam: Whassa matter? Mad at her?

Bill: Nope; I'm afraid to interrupt her.

WOMEN GOSSIP

One who usually gets caught in her Gossip: own mouth-trap.

A WOMAN'S BEST ASSET

IS HER BODY

Dumb Babe:

One who counts on her fingers in-

stead of her legs.

WOMEN ARE TERRIBLE DRIVERS

A woman driver made a right turn from the left lane and hit another car.

The other driver angrily asked, "Lady, why didn't you signal?"

Without a moment's hesitation, she replied, "Mister,

I always turn here."

WOMEN TRY TO TRAP MEN

I wonder why a girl can't catch a ball like He:

Oh, a man is so much bigger and easier to She:

catch.

A WOMAN WILL SPEND ALL OF A MAN'S MONEY-

Gold-digger: A woman who pulls the wool over a

man's eyes and then fleeces him.

WOMEN TRICK MEN INTO MARRIAGE

A man who has taken many a girl out Bachelor:

but has never been taken in.

WOMEN MAKE THEIR HUSBANDS UNHAPPY

Lulu: Last night, my date asked me to marry him and make him happy.

Sue: Which did you decide to do?

A WOMAN'S PLACE IS IN THE HOME Daughter: I want to go to college and
learn psychology, philosophy, socio...
Practical Mother: Stop! I've arranged
for you a thorough course in bakeology,
stitchology, patchology, and general
domestic hustleology.

Other examples of humor which demean women include: Mother-in-law jokes, "old hag" jokes, spinster jokes, jokes about "the farmer's daughter and the traveling salesman," jokes about women hiding their age, jokes about a woman's appearance, jokes about women being indecisive, and jokes about women being fearful.

Brick-Bats or Roses?

Some jokes about women which appear to be compliments may, in fact, be insults. For example, Alice Rivlin, an economist at the Brookings Institute, related the following experience in a recent article:

In a small meeting of academics, a man I've known for years passes me a note that reads, "I've never understood how a good looking woman like you can be so smart."

Consider another example:

As part of her professional responsibilities, a female secretary comes into a meeting in order to distribute reports. As she enters, one of the male participants comments to her boss who is sitting across the table, "How do you manage to get all the good looking girls in your department?" Everyone laughs; the secretary smiles slightly and continues her duties.

In both cases, the subtle jokes about women appear to be compliments. The men who tell such jokes usually intend them that way. But the women involved are often confused about whether they should smile or scowl. On one hand, they have been called beautiful. On the other hand, according to many people, they have been insulted.

The comment to Ms. Rivlin, for example, implies that women--particularly attractive ones--are rarely intelligent. The comment to the female secretary portrays a professional woman as a girl and as a sex object. Critics of sexist humor point out that men are not subjected to these same



kind of comments. How often does someone say:

I've never understood how a good looking man like you could be so smart.

or / %

How do you manage to get all the good looking boys in your department?

To most people, such comments about men seem ridiculous and highly inappropriate. But these comments continue to be made about women. More and more people are beginning to feel that women should be respected for their intelligence and professional status and that jokes to the contrary are not funny.

Sexist Humor and What It Says About Men

There are very few jokes about the male sex, and many of these suggest biases about females. For example:

Woman: A creature who is either making a fool out of a man, or a man out of a fool.

While suggesting that men are weak and foolish, this joke also implies that men are the "hen-pecked" victims of women. Consider another example:

A bachelor gentleman habitually spent his evenings with a widow who lived in his district. After a year or so, his friend suggested that he marry the lady. "I've given it much thought," he said. "But where would I spend my evenings then?"

While implying that men are unfaithful to their wives, this jokes also suggests that no man would want to spend his evenings with his wife.

The most damaging jokes about men are those concerning "effeminate males." A male who has a high voice, who is physically weak and uncoordinated, who likes such "girlish" activities as playing with dolls or sewing, who earns his living as a hair dresser, or who in any other way exhibits some characteristic considered feminine is often ridiculed about being a "sissy" or a "queer." Many males carry life-long scars because of such misconceived "humor."



The Importance ot Eliminating Sexist Humor

At this point, one may be thinking, 'What's the harm in a little joke? Many men and women like jokes that could be called sexist. People should be more willing to laugh at themselves."

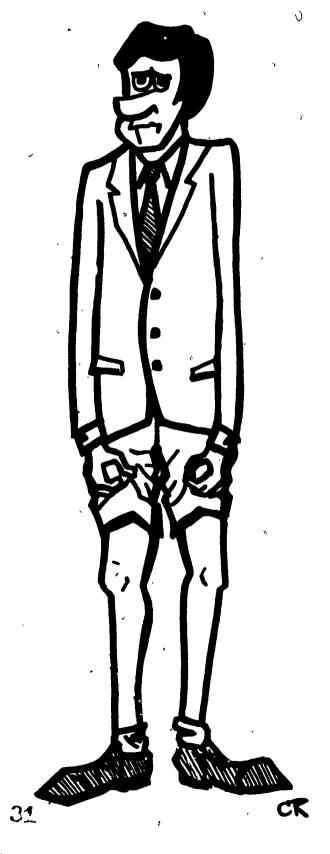
In the first place, jokes can be harmful. They can insult as well as amuse. They can threaten as well as entertain. They can confuse as well as explain. They can keep people apart as well as bring them together. They can reinforce prejudices about people and form mental scars which last a lifetime.

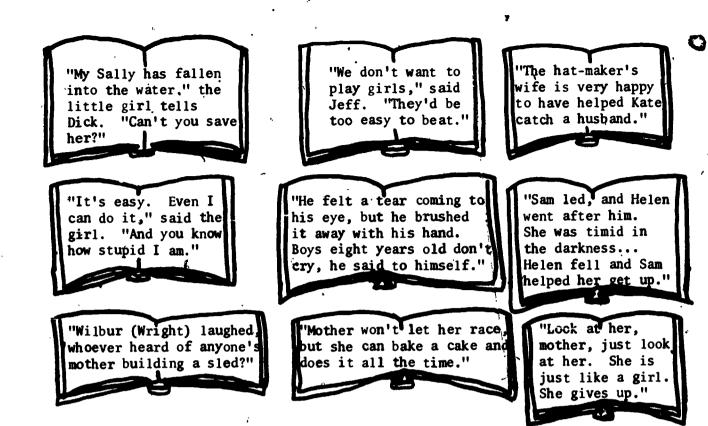
Certainly, many people of both sexes tell and enjoy sexist jokes; but many of these people are not really aware of what they are saying. Often they laugh not because they agree with the sex biases contained in the jokes, but because they are socially expected to laugh. Often, these people do not realize that others—and perhaps they themselves—are insulted by sexist humor.

As a result of changing attitudes and the outrage of social minorities, few people tell ethnic jokes in public forums. But sexist humor thrives in both public and private life. Some people who feel greatly offended by "nigger" or "Polock" jokes really enjoy jokes about women.

However, more and more people are becoming aware that seemingly harmless jokes about women and "effeminate males" are destructive at worst and inappropriate at best. Certainly, everyone needs to laugh as often and as deeply as possible--but not if their laughter hurts other human beings.

"How did a goodlooking guy like you get to be so smart?"





SEX BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

-Highlights-

- Textbooks and other materials play an important role in children's perceptions of the world and their place in it.
- . Documer cation is presented on the following pages which shows that sex bias definitely exists in many instructional materials.
- . Sexist materials are harmful to students in the following ways:
 - They limit personal choices -- both social and occupational.
 - They cause females to feel inferior.
 - They place unnecessary stress on boys to be "successful."
 - They are a constant reproach to many youngsters whose lifestyles do not conform to the idealized and unrealistic view of family life presented in texts.
 - They omit the accomplishments of women and therefore present an incomplete picture of the world.

Both males and females have much to gain from the elimination of sex stereotyped materials.



SEX BIAS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Responsibility of Educators for Sex Bias in Instructional Materials

The role of the school in the development of children and youth is recognized as a powerful and effective one. By the time students reach high school age, their perceptions of the world and their place in it have been relatively well established. The world which educators present, in literature and in the classroom, is the context within which children decide who they are and who they are to be. Textbooks, of course, constitute the major source of informational and attitudinal content for many students. An analysis of the research on sex role stereotyping in textbooks leads to the conclusion that sex bias definitely exists in a number of texts as well as in other instructional materials. Many feel that the stereotyped images of males and females presented in books, the obvious omission of the accomplishments of women in all fields, and the number of times that male characters, nouns, and pronouns outnumber female counterparts tend to discriminate against women in particular, and to a lesser degree against males who do not fit the conventional mold.

Determining Quality of Textbooks in Terms of Sex Bias

How does one know if a textbook is sexist? Sexism refers to all those attitudes and actions which relegate women to a secondary and inferior status in society. Textbooks are sexist if they omit the achievements of women; if they demean females by using patronizing language; or if they show females only in stereotyped roles with less than the full range of human interests, traits, and capabilities. Interest is rapidly growing in the concept that textbooks should treat females and males equally. Although for generations women were regarded as inferior, this philosophy is no longer embraced by intelligent people. And, certainly, the sexist attitudes of the past should not be reflected in current publications.

Ill Effects of Sex-Biased Instructional Materials

How do sexist instructional materials harm youngsters? In the first place, they limit a girl's aspirations by suggesting that females should grow up to become only wives and mothers. Further, they suggest that if she pursues a career, it should be that of nurse, secretary, waitress, or other occupations traditionally associated with women. Very seldom do text-books present females as scientists, lawyers, doctors, corporation executives, politicians, or in other professions associated with power--a factor that surely affects a female's future aspirations.

In the second place, instructional materials of a sexist nature damage girls' self-concepts by subtly suggesting that females are inferior to males, that they are helpless, or at least should be, that they are docile, submissive, and unimaginative.

In the third place, boys are harmed by sex stereotyping in instructional materials. Males are generally portrayed in books as being brave, inventive, aggressive, athletic, tough, and emotionless. To boys who do not possess these traits, such materials are a constant reminder that they have somehow `



failed, that they do not fit the mold, and that they have let their teachers and their parents down. These materials also remind the "all-American boy" that he must never stop trying, that any show of weakness or fear will mean he is a failure.

Increasingly, it is recognized that there are few, if any, characteristics or virtues which are limited to one sex; primarily, there are only human virtues. Attitudes and standards which cause a boy to feel inferior because he is frail, unathletic, or compassionate should be reevaluated by those responsible for the development of children and youth, and efforts should be made to alter these. Likewise, societal expectations which cause a girl to feel guilty for example because she is interested in a career in nuclear engineering also should be explored in terms of wholesome modifications.

Finally, there are many students whose family life does not conform to the idealized version found in textbooks; i.e., the nuclear family with a working father, housewife mother, and two or three children living in a comfortable house in the suburbs. For the thousands of youngsters who live on welfare, in the ghetto, whose mothers are divorced or widowed, who live in communal situations, or who in hundreds of ways do not fit the accepted patterns, these books are a constant reproach. Ideally, books should present a more realistic view of the world. They should convey images of family life in which mothers work, in which fathers are nurturant, in which some families have only one parent, in which some children spend their days in child care centers, and in which all families are not white and middle chass. They should also present examples of single people who may choose not to be part of a family at all.

The Importance of Change Agents

A number of concerned educators and citizens groups are becoming effective change agents in eliminating sexist materials and attitudes from the schools. In Kalamazoo, Minneapolis, Dallas, New York, Ann Arbor--indeed all over the country--pressure is being exerted on publishers to begin a massive overhaul of instructional materials and on school systems and textbook commissions to reject books which contain sex stereotypes. What can be done if one is genuinely concerned about sexist textbooks? First of all, one can become aware of what constitutes sexism in texts; he/she can speak out at PTA meetings; he/she can organize task forces for the purpose of taking action; and, finally, he/she can make known his/her feelings to decision makers. Local situations may permit other types of activity.

Review of Literature on Instructional Materials

In recent years considerable investigation has been undertaken concerning the type and quantity of sex bias which is reflected in many aspects of education, especially in the area of textbooks. Achievement tests have also been studied in terms of their biases. Interestedly enough, a majority of these studies have been made by women.

A Princeton, New Jersey group called Women on Words and Images (a task force of the National Organization of Women) conducted a two-year study of



sex role stereotyping in children's readers. The study is entitled DICK AND JANE AS VICTIMS. They examined 134 books from twelve different publishers and found that males were present in overwhelmingly larger numbers than females. Clever girls, for example, appeared 33 times while clever boys appeared 131; passive and dependent girls appeared 119 times and passive and dependent boys appeared only 19 times.

Lenore J. Weitzman and others conducted a study of eighteen children's books which were winners of Caldecott Awards (an award given by the American Library Association for the most distinguished picture book of the year) and found 261 pictures of males and 23 pictures of females. In the animal stories, the male animals outnumbered the female animals. When female characters were shown, they were insignificant or inconspicuous. It is easy to imagine that the little girl reading these books might feel that girls are less worthy than males. The rigidity of these sex-role stereotypes may be equally as harmful to young boys who do not feel as fearless, brave, or clever as the boys depicted in the stories. Perhaps the most significant finding in this study was the fact that not one woman in the Caldecott sample had a job or a profession. In a country where 40 percent of the women are in the labor force, and close to 30 million work, it is unrealistic to discover that women in picture books remain only mothers and housewives.

A citizens' group studying sex bias in the Ann Arbor, Michigan Schools found that mathematics textbooks likewise were biased. Men in mathematics books, according to this study committee, were always doctors, astronauts, and policemen, while women usually were portrayed as nurses and waitresses. Winifred Jay's Ph.D. dissertation, Sex Stereotyping in Selected Mathematics Textbooks, also revealed sex bias in elementary mathematics texts.

In a study performed by a group of Puerto Rican women (PEMINISTS LOOK AT 100 BOOKS), they concluded that "A Puerto Rican girl faced only with the prospects presented in these books might reasonably choose not to grow up at all."

Citizens' groups in New York City, Los Angeles, Kalamazoo, Dallas, and Minneapolis have carefully studied and documented sex bias in school textbooks in all subject areas for elementary and high schools.

Janice Law Trecker recently analyzed U.S. history textbooks used in numerous high schools. Her report, which appeared in the journal of the National Council for the Social Studies (SOCIAL EDUCATION, March 1971) revealed that women's contributions to our Nation's history are largely omitted or disparagingly mentioned. The valid contributions that American women have made to Colonial life, abolition and the Civil War, frontier life, the World Wars, and women's suffrage have somehow been overlooked. Further, the contributions that women have made to education, the arts and humanities, aviation, and social reform have been given inadequate attention.

When Marjorie U'Ren (1971) studied textbooks recommended by the California State Board of Education for grades 2-5, she found 75 percent of the main characters in these stories were male with less than 20 percent of story space devoted to females. In another recent study, Graebner (1972)



35

tried to determine whether the role of women has changed in elementary texts over the last decade. Five hundred and fifty-four stories were analyzed using texts from Scott, Foresman, and Ginn. She concluded that almost no change in the portrayal of the role of women has occurred during these years and that texts have not kept pace with changes in society.

In an analysis of a series of social studies books and readers produced by ten publishers, De Crow (1972) found no women portrayed as working outside the home except as a teacher or nurse. Those who worked were labeled "Miss." Males were shown making decisions, using initiative, being creative, while females were shown as being fearful and dependent.

Carol Jacklin and her associates (1972) undertook a study sponsored by the Ford Foundation which appeared in the HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, August 1973. Four elementary reading textbook series were chosen for analysis, including the Bank Street series because of its reputation for innovation. (A complete list of texts analyzed can be obtained from the author.) The journal documents the extent and kind of sex-role stereotyping found present in the kindergarten through third-grade textbooks of four major publishers. What they found present in the texts was an unrealistic view of society, omitting the reality experienced by large groups of children: alternative life styles, urban children, ghetto children, children of divorced parents, and children with working mothers. It is highly possible that such children experience a deep sense of inferiority when they learn that they do not fit into the dream world pictured in these reading materials.

Elizabeth Burr, Susan Dunn, and Norma Farquhar examined the most popular social studies textbooks and, after having found all of them discriminatory toward females, prepared a set of guidelines to assist writers and others in their attempts to provide equal treatment of the sexes in textbooks. Their guidelines are applicable to other textbooks in a wide range of fields. Briefly, these guidelines deal with: (1) omissions of females' accomplishments; (2) glorification of males; (3) male-oriented language which refers to all people as "man;" (4) relegation of women to a separate and lesser status than males; (5) role-assigning in the area of work; (6) implications that the worth of a female is synonymous with her physical appearance; and (7) language and stories which fail to portray females as total human beings.

Achievement tests do not differ from textbooks in one aspect: their content contains numerous sex-role stereotypes. Achievement tests, therefore, are instructional in that they not only assess but also convey and teach much about the latent aspects of our culture-our prejudices, our mores, and our way of life. Dr. Carol K. Tittle of the City University of New York conducted a review of research literature on testing practices entitled WOMEN AND EDUCATIONAL TESTING, published by the Educational Testing Service. In that publication, she documents the extent of sex bias in language usage and item content, using tests from four major test publishers. Examples of sex-role stereotyping found in these tests are: "In the United States, voters do not directly choose the man they wish to be President," and "Betty sets out dishes on the table, while Tom carries in the cnairs." The major point to be stressed here is that tests have been used in school settings with little thought given to the socializing aspects of their content on students.



In the area of occupational interest inventories, sex bias is more overt, since it restricts individual choice. This area of test bias will be dealt with in the Guidance and Counseling section of this source book.

Though primary emphasis in this section has been on sex bias as found in textbooks, it is recognized that administrators, teachers, parents, and students themselves should make continuing efforts to become increasingly aware of sexism in all types of instructional materials and that they should initiate strategies which might eliminate any of these biases.



Ï.



CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING MATERIALS RELATIVE TO SEXISM

		MALE	PEMALE
1.	Number of stories where main character is:		
2.	Number of illustrations of:		
3.	Number of times children are shown:		
	- in active play'		
	'- using initiative		
	- displaying independence		
	- solving problems		
	- earning money		
	- receiving recognition		
	- being inventive		
	- involved in sports		
	- fearful or helpless	´ 	
	- receiving help		
4.	Number of times adults are shown: - in different occupations - playing with children - taking children on outings - teaching skills - giving tenderness - scolding children - biographically		
5.	In addition, ask yourself these questions:		
	 (a) Are boys allowed to show their emotions? (b) Are girls rewarded for intelligence and initiative rather than for beauty? (c) Are there any derogatory comments directed at girls in general? (d) Is mother shown working outside the home? (e) If so, in what kind of job? (f) Are there any stories about one-parent families? (g) Families without children? (h) Are baby-sitters shown? 		





GENERAL GUIDF'. INES FOR TEXT AND ILLUSTRATIONS

(From: Scott, Foresman Company, Book Publisher)

The following guidelines likely will suggest ways in which continuing efforts may be made to eliminate sex bias in the preparation of instructional materials:

The actions and achievements of women should be recognized.

The contributions of women to politics, the sciences, the arts, and other fields often thought of as being provinces of the male only should be presented and explored.

The works of female authors are too often qmitted from anthologies. When compiling or revising such texts, editors should actively search for material written by women.

Females should be included as often as males in math problems, spelling and vocabulary sentences, discussion questions, test items, and other exercises. Very often the overall tone of a book is sexist because males are more frequently mentioned in exercises or because the exercises present only stereotypes.

Although many factors determine the contents of textbooks--authors, permissions, space, time, money, the market, etc.--these limitations should not be used to excuse bias, prejudice, or insensitivity.

Women and girls should be given the same respect as men and boys.

Writers, editors, designers, and illustrators should make sure that both male and female readers feel that a publication is directed to them.

While individual girls and women may be portrayed as comical, stupid, fearful, or followers of male initiative, such material should be scrutinized carefully in the context of the book as a whole to ensure that contempt for women as a group is not inadvertently being fostered. For example, writers should take care that a joke about a woman who is a bad driver, a shrewish mother-in-law, financially inept, etc. does not present these qualities as typical of women as a group. Girls and women should not be shown as more fearful of danger, mice, snakes, and insects than boys and men are in similar situations.

Women and girls should not be shown as unworthy people when they do not conform to male standards. Males should not be viewed as having a monopoly on ability to judge what is interesting or worthwhile.

Although women are a majority of the American population, in many ways their 🦠



33

history has been that of a minor ty group. Because of past discrimination, the same care must be taken in portraying women as in portraying blacks, Puerto Ricans, Chicanos, American Indians, and other minorities.

Abilities, traits, interests, and activities should not be assigned on the basis of male or female stereotypes.

One reason often cited for the overwhelming percentage of selections by or about males in literature and language arts texts is that boys will read only stories about boys, whereas girls will read anything. If females were not depicted as passive, lackluster, sweet but senseless drudges, both boys and girls would find them more interesting. Few boys have rejected Alice in Wonderland or The Wizard of Oz because the main characters are girls.

Females as well as males possess courage, physical strength, mechanical skills, and the ability to think logically. Males as well as females can be fearful, weak, mechanically inept, and illogical. Females can be rude, intractable, active, or messy. Males can be polite, cooperative, inactive, or neat. Because such characteristics are shared by males and females in reality, textbooks that classify them as "masculine" or "feminine" are misrepresenting reality.

Both men and women should be shown cooking, cleaning, making household repairs, doing laundry, washing the car, and taking care of children. Both men and women should be shown making decisions; participating in sports; writing poetry; working in factories, stores, and offices; playing musical instruments; practicing medicine and law; serving on boards of directors; and making scientific discoveries.

Children often conform to the standards of their peers because they fear ridicule. If only boys are encouraged to be active and competitive, girls with these inclinations may learn to stifle them. If only girls are encouraged to express openly such emotions as fear, sorrow, and affection, boys may feel reluctant to express these emotions.

Both men and women have much to gain from the elimination of stereotypes. (. Textbooks which avoid male and female stereotyping will more accurately represent reality, encourage tolerance for individual differences, and allow more freedom for children to discover and express their needs, interests, and abilities.



10

Sources of Non-Sexist Materials

China Books and Periodicals, 95 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10003.

Educational Activities, Incorporated, Freeport, New York 11520.

Emma Willard Task Force on Education, Box 14229, University Station, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55408.

The Feminist Press, Box 334, Old Westbury, New York 11568.

Feminists on Children's Media, Post Office Box 4375, Grand Central Station, New York, New York 10017.

The Free to be Foundation, 370 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10017.

Joyful World Press, 468 Belvedere Street, San Francisco, California 94117.

KNOW, Incorporated, Box 86031, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15221.

Lollipop Power, Post Office Box 1171, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514.

National Organization of Women, Education Task Force. Anne Grant, 617 49th Street, Brooklyn, New York 11220.

New England Free Press, 60 Union Square, Somerville, Massachusetts 02143.

New Seed Press, 1001 Karen Way, Mountain View, California 94040.

Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Teachers Rights, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Women's Heritage Series, Box 3236, Santa Monica, California 90403.



Selected References

DICK AND JANE AS VICTIMS: SEX STEREOTYPING IN CHILDREN'S READERS. Princeton, New Jersey: Women on Words and Images, 1972.

GUIDELINES FOR IMPROVING THE IMAGE OF WOMEN IN TEXTBOOKS. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972.

Hurst, Gayle. SEX BIAS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL L. TERATURE ANTHOLOGIES. St. Louis, Missouri: National Organization for Women, 1973. (ED 085 763)

Kraft, Linda. "Lost Herstory--The Tréatment of Women in Children's Encyclopedias," LIBRARY JOURNAL 98:218-227, January 15, 1973.

LITTLE MISS MUFFET FIGHTS BACK. New York, New York: Feminists on Children's Media, 1971.

Moberg, Verne. A CHILD'S RIGHT TO EQUAL READING. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1973. (ED 089 231)

Rose, Karel. SLEEPING BEAUTY AWAKES: CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND SEX ROLE MYTHS. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1973. (ED 089 322)

Rosenberg, Max. "Evaluate Your Textbooks for Racism, Sexism!" EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP 31:107-109, November 1973.

Saario, Terry N. and others. "Sex Role Stereotyping in the Public Schools," HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW 43:386-416, August 1973.

Stewig, John and Higgs, Margaret. "Girls Grow Up to Be Mommies: A Study of Sexism in Children's Literature," SCHOOL LIBRARY JOURNAL 44-49, January 1973.

Tittle, Carol. WOMEN AND EDUCATIONAL TESTING. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1973.

Trecker, Janice Law. "Women in U. S. History High School Textbooks," SOCIAL EDUCATION 35:249-261, March 1971.



SEX DIFFERENCES IN ACADEMIC ABILITY AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

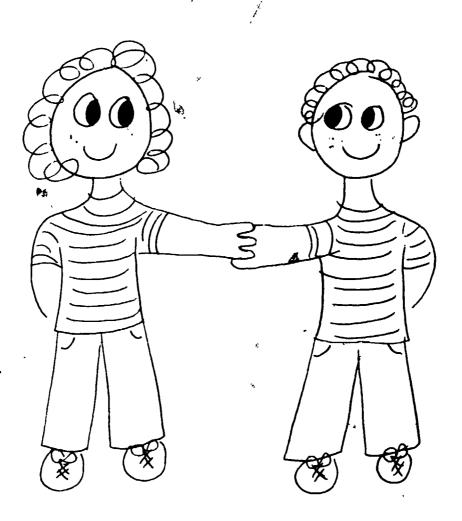
-Highlights-

- According to most reports, girls tend to have more verbal ability than boys. Several theories have been offered to explain this difference:
 - Girls develop the physiological skills needed for verbal tasks sooner than boys.
 - The school is a "feminine environment" which favors the achievement of girls and blocks the achievement of boys, particularly in reading and other verbal tasks.
 - Teachers, the majority being female, are unfair to boys.
- According to most reports, boys tend to have more mathematical ability than girls. Several theories have been offered to explain this difference:
 - Boys inherently have more spatial ability than girls.
 - Girls are discouraged from achieving in mathematics.
- Girls tend to achieve better than boys in elementary and junior high school. These differences tend to disappear during high school, with more boys than girls attending and graduating from college. Several theories have been offered to explain this pattern:
 - Girls mature sooner than boys; but between adolescence and adulthood, boys catch up in mental and physiological development.
 - During adolescence and adulthood, females are discouraged from achieving. In addition, many stop trying to succeed because they believe that achievement is "unfeminine."



WHAT ARE LITTLE BOYS MADE OF?

What are little boys made of, made of?
What are little boys made of?
Love and care
And skin and hair
That's what little boys are made of.



What are little girls made of, made of? What are little girls made of? Care and love And (SEE ABOVE) That's what little girls are made of.

-Reprinted with permission of the Free to be Foundation, Inc.



SEX DIFFERENCES IN ACADEMIC ABILITY AND SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

The Problem of Sex Differences in Academic Ability and Achievement

Sex differences in mental ability and achievement are extremely difficult to pin-point and explain. Even if one can decide how to define and measure a particular ability or trait, the resulting evidence is often confusing, contradictory, or incomplete. When clear sex differences are observed, numerous alternative theories are offered to account for them. Do they result from genetic differences, differences in how males and females are treated, or as in many cases, differences resulting from the interaction of heredity and environment? Or do observable differences merely reflect test error, sampling bias, and subjective interpretation?

The amount of material relating to sex differences in mental ability and in achievement is voluminous and growing larger every day. No article can describe it all. In a simple and object way, this article is designed to summarize basic information about three questions important for educators:

- Do girls have more verbal ability than boys?
- . Do boys have more mathematical ability than girls?
- Is one sex more likely to achieve in school than the other?

Verbal Ability in Girls and Boys

According to most reports, girls tend to have more verbal ability than boys. Girls speak sooner and are more verbally responsive than boys during their early years. They also read sooner and better in a variety of instructional approaches. Boys, it should be added, are far more likely to have speech defects than girls. A ten-year longitudinal study in Los Angeles, California, found that girls as a group read better than boys in every elementary grade, while boys tend to have more problems with articulation, pronunciation, and phonetic sounds than girls. Surveys indicate that four times as many boys are referred to remedial reading clinics as girls.

Certain studies report that these sex differences diminish in high school, while others indicate that females increase their verbal superiority with age. Some researchers attribute this discrepancy to sex differences in specific types of verbal ability. According to other studies, females perform better than males on "low-level" tasks, such as verbal fluency and spelling, while boys excel in "high-level" tasks, such as verbal comprehension and reasoning. Consequently, sex differences in verbal ability may depend on the type of skills being tested. On the other hand, there are studies which contradict this theory, indicating female verbal superiority at all levels.



32

Despite differing interpretations and combinations of evidence, most studies report that girls tend to have more verbal ability than boys.

Why do girls show more verbal ability than boys? Research suggests several possible genetic reasons for female superiority in verbal tasks. Girls are more physically and mentally developed at birth than are boys; moreover, they mature earlier than boys. As a result, at an early age, they have better speech, better eye-hand coordination, and better control over finger and wrist movement than boys. Such maturity, it is claimed, gives girls a decisive advantage in learning to read and write. Many boys, on the other hand, lacking such physiological maturity, become frustrated and discouraged in elementary school. Most studies report that boys catch up with girls in physiological and mental development between adolescence and adulthood, although girls retain their superiority in manual dexterity.

Differences in the treatment of girls and boys may accentuate developmental differences. For example, such "feminine" activities as sewing and dressing dolls may help girls to increase their developmental advantage in the control of hand and wrist muscles. Boys, on the other hand, may receive little training in their games for such finely coordinated movements as writing.

Some researchers argue that school is a "woman's world" which favors girls and blocks boys, particular' in reading and other verbal tasks. In their view, the school rewards such "feminine" standards as propriety, obedience, decorum, cleanliness, silence, and mental and physical passivity, while punishing such "masculine" traits as assertiveness, activity, and curiosity. Consequently, they conclude, many boys experience role conflicts and exhibit their confusion and fear through disruptive behavior and reading failure. Other researchers reply that, if the schools do reward passivity while punishing curiosity and activity, students of both sexes are hurt.

Many studies have attempted to discover whether teachers treat girls better than boys, particularly during reading instruction. Seventy percent of the elementary teachers in an extensive 10-year longitudinal study indicated that they preferred to teach girls. Does this preference indicate sex bias or sex differences in behavior? Some studies conclude that teachers rate boys lower than girls because boys are more aggressive and disruptive. Felsenthal (1971), for example, found that boys received more teacher criticism and lower reading scores than girls; but that boys were also more likely to be hostile and aggressive and therefore more likely to be criticized.

Other studies report that teachers are more likely to reject, ignore, and criticize boys than girls; but that they are also more likely to call on boys in class and accept their ideas. Other sources argue that boys are discouraged and treated unfairly by their teachers. In a 1960 study of grades four through six, teachers rated the behavior and achievement of boys lower than that of girls. Similarly, in the same study it was reported that girls were more likely than boys to think that their teacher felt favorably about them. These results are particularly significant, since the study also revealed that the more favorably children think their teachers feel about them, the more likely that they will perceive themselves in



a favorable manner, achieve well academically, and show positive classroom behavior.

In summary, while teachers often rate girls higher than boys, there is very little evidence that they treat boys unfairly, particularly during reading instruction.

Mathematical Ability in Girls and Boys

Until about the fourth grade, girls and boys show essentially the same mathematical ability. Thereafter, according to most research, mathematical skills among boys increase more rapidly than among girls, with boys excelling in "higher-level" skills, such as arithmetic reasoning and problem-solving, and girls in "lower-level" skills, such as basic numerical computations. In high school, boys generally score higher than girls on mathematical tests and are more likely to continue their study of mathematics throughout high school and in college.

Why do boys have more mathematical ability than girls? Studies reveal very little evidence of inherent sex differences in mathematical ability. Some researchers point to male superiority in spatial ability as an indicator of genetic differences. Spatial ability—or the ability to perceive figures and objects in space and how they are related to each other—is an integral part of mathematical ability. Beginning in adolescence and continuing throughout adulthood, males tend to show greater spatial ability than females. While some studies attribute these sex differences to heredity, others cite environmental influences; e.g., boys take part in more spatially oriented games than do girls; and/or girls are taught to use symbols sooner than boys and, as a result, lack the concrete experiences necessary for developing spatial ability.

In addition, according to some sources, girls are discouraged from achieving in mathematics. Traditionally, they explain, mathematics has been more closely related to the male sex than to the female sex. Analysis and reasoning skills have been generally perceived as "masculine" traits. Consequently, according to these sources, many girls fail to develop their mathematical ability in order to conform to the feminine stereotype.

A significant study of sixth-graders in 1967 seems to su_F ort this theory. Though few sex differences in mathematical ability were found in this study, striking variations were revealed when mathematical ability was compared to feelings of personal worth. The higher the male achievement in mathematical ability, the greater was his sense of personal worth. The higher the female achievement in mathematics, the lower were her feelings of self worth. These findings suggest that many girls do not consider mathematical ability to be a desirable personal trait.

Sex Differences in School Achievement

Most sources report that girls achieve better than boys in elementary and junior high school. Among elementary children, girls are more likely



34

, 31

than boys to be enrolled above their modal grade; whereas, boys are more likely than girls to be enrolled below their modal grade. For the most part, girls receive better grades than boys in elementary and junior high school, with the differences gradually disappearing toward graduation from high school.

After high school, boys are more likely than girls to attend and graduate from college. In 1970, for example, the proportion of female college students was 44 percent in the first two years of school, 39 percent in the second two years, and 30 percent in the fifth year and higher. Longitudinal studies report that females are more likely than boys to drop out of undergraduate and graduate programs.

In 1960, Shaw and McCuen revealed the existence of sex differences in patterns of underachievement. Among bright children (IQ's over 110) who attended school in the same district from grades one through eleven, males had been obtaining grades below their ability levels since the first grade. Female underachievers, on the other hand, performed well from the first grade through the fifth grade, but showed a drastic drop in their grades at the sixth-grade level. These girls continued to perform below their ability through high school.

Do sex differences in achievement follow a pattern? As suggested by the Shaw and McCuen study, girls tend to show higher school achievement during elementary school and often during junior high school. Thereafter, boys as a group catch up with girls and often surpass them in measures of school achievement. A twenty-five year longitudinal study illustrates this pattern. Males in the study increased their IQ scores more from adolescence to adulthood than did women. In fact, there was a tendency for women with high IQ scores at adolescence not to increase their scores as much as others in the study.

Why does this pattern occur? Certainly, maturation differences account for part of this pattern. Girls mature sooner than boys; but between adolescence and adulthood, boys make up this mental and physiological difference. Moreover, during this later period, boys begin to make better grades and frequently equal or surpass girls in other measures of school achievement.

Some researchers argue that girls are discouraged from athieving during adolescence. According to their findings, children and youth learn appropriate sex roles as they develop, with boys learning to be strong, active, aggressive, and competitive and girls learning to be passive, weak, and dependent. During adolescence, when girls and boys are struggling to understand what it means to be women and men, many girls shy away from those traits which society does not consider "feminine." Consequently, according to literature in this area, girls place less interest and effort on activities leading to achievement and more effort and interest on activities leading to positive relations with the opposite sex.

Dr. Matina Horner, who has been studying achievement motivation among females for many years, reports that many women are afraid of success. Women do not desire failure, explains Dr. Horner, but they desire to avoid the negative consequences of success, such as social rejection and/or feelings of



being "unfeminine."

Many studies have attempted to test Horner's theory. Several of these indicate that women avoid success only in situations involving competition or those involving masculine tasks. Other investigators have not found such avoidance of success among women. Lunnewood and Rosenwood, for example, found no evidence of female avoidance of success and attributed the results to "the breakdown of sexual stereotypes, with men more concerned with loving and close interpersonal relationships and women more concerned with pride in school and work achievement."

Selected References: Sex Differences in Reading Ability

Austin, David and others. READING RIGHTS FOR BOYS. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1971.

Bentzen, Frances. "Sex Ratios in Learning and Behavior Disorders," NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL 46:13-17, November 1966.

Dakin, Karen E. C. LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF SEX DIFFERENCES IN READING ACHIEVE-MENT IN GRADES FOUR THROUGH EIGHT. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University, 1970.

Davis, O. L., Jr. and Slobodian, June J. "Teacher Behavior Toward Boys and Girls During First Grade Reading Instruction," AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH JOURNAL 4:261-269, May 1967.

Ellis, Joseph R. THE EFFECT OF SAME SEX CLASS ORIGIN ON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, SELF-DISCIPLINE, SELF-CONCEPT, SEX ROLE IDENTIFICATION, AND ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL. DeKalb, Illinois: Northern Illinois University, 1965.

Felsenthal, Helen. PUPIL SEX AS A VARIABLE IN TEACHER PERCEPTION OF CLASS-ROOM BEHAVIOR. (Paper presented at the Convention of the American Educational Research Association, New York, 1971) (ED 050 026)

Felsenthal, Helen. SEX DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER-PUPIL INTERACTION IN FIRST GRADE READING INSTRUCTION. (Paper presented at the Convention of the American Educational Research Association, Minneapolis, Minnesota, March 2-6, 1970)

Gates, Arthur I. "Sex Differences in Reading Ability," ELEMENTARY SCHOOL JOURNAL 61:431-434, May, 1961.

Good, Thomas L. and Brophy, Jere E. DO BOYS AND GIRLS RECLIVE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY IN FIRST GRADE READING INSTRUCTION? Austin, Texas: Texas University, 1969.

Good, Thomas L. and Brophy, Jere E. "Questioned Equality for Grade One Boys and Girls," READING TEACHER 25:247-252, December 1971.



. : :)

Heinrich, June Sark. SHOULD BOYS AND GIRLS BE EDUCATED DIFFERENTLY? Chicago, Illinois: Science Research Associates, 1967.

Jacklin, Carol N. and Maccoby, Eleanor E. SEX DIFFERENCES IN INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES: A REASSESSMENT AND A LOOK AT SOME NEW EXPLANATIONS. Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1972.

Johnson, Dale D. AN INVESTIGATION OF SEX DIFFERENCES IN READING IN FOUR ENGLISH-SPEAKING NATIONS. (Technical Report Number 209) Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin University, 1972.

Mushkin, Selma J. NATIONAL ASSESSMENT AND SOCIAL INDICATORS. Washington, D. C.: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, no date.

NATIONAL ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS NEWSLETTER, Entire issue. Vol. 5, No. 4, June-July 1972.

North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Division of Research.

STATE ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN NORTH CAROLINA. Raleigh, North
Carolina: The Department, 1972.

Peck, Robert F. A CROSS NATIONAL COMPARISON OF SEX AND SOCIOECONOMIC DIFFERENCES IN APTITUDE AND ACHIEVEMENT. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, 1971.

Pollack, Jack H. "Are Teachers Fair to Boys?" TODAY'S HEALTH 46:21, April 1968.

Rubin, Rosalyn and Barlow, Bruce. COMPARISON OF PRE-KINDERGARTEN AND PRE-FIRST GRADE BOYS AND GIRLS ON MEASURES OF SCHOOL READINESS AND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT, INTERIM REPORT. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1968.

Rubin, Rosalyn. "Sex Differences in the Effect of Kindergarten Attendance on Development of School Readiness and Language Skills," THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL 72:265-274, February 1972.

Sears, Paulite S. and Feldman, David H. "Teacher Interactions with Boys and with Girls," NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL 46:31+, November 1966.

SENIORS COMPOSITE NATIONAL REPORT, 1972-73. New York; College Entrance Examination Board, 1974.

Sexton, Patricia. "Schools Are Emasculating Our Boys," SATURDAY REVIEW 48:57, June 19, 1965.

Stanchfield, Jo M. SEX DIFFERENCES IN LEARNING TO READ. Bloomington, Illinois: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1973.

Weintraub, Samuel. "Sex Differences in Reading Achievement," THE READING TEACHER 20, November 1966.



Welles, Melinda F. PERFORMANCE OF PRESCHOOL GIRLS AND BOYS ON MEASURES OF FIELD INDEPENDENCE-DEPENDENCE, REFLECTIVITY-IMPULSIVITY, AND VERBAL RESPONSIVENESS. Washington, D. C.: Office of Economic Opportunity, 1971.

Selected References: Sex Differences in Mathematical Ability

Aiken, L. R., Jr. "Attitudes Toward Mathematics," REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 40:551-596, 1970.

Alexander, V. "Sex Differences in Seventh Grade Problem Solving," SCHOOL SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS 62:47-50, 1962.

Brace, A. and Nelson, L. "The Preschool Child's Concept of Number," ARITH-METIC TEACHER 12:126-133, 1965.

Cleveland, G. A. and Bosworth, D. L. "A Study of Certain Psychological and Sociological Characteristics as Related to Arithmetic Achievement," ARITHMETIC TEACHER 14:383-387, 1967.

D'Augustine, C. H. "Factors Relating to Achievement with Selected Topics in Geometry and Topology," ARITHMETIC TEACHER 13:192-197, 1966.

Fennema, Elizabeth. MATHEMATICS LEARNING AND THE SEXES, A REVIEW. (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, 1973) (ED 076 392)

Garron, D. C. "Sex-Linked Recessive Inheritance of Spatial and Numerical Abilities and Turner's Syndrome," PSYCHOLOGICAL REVIEW 77:147-152, 1970.

Harvis, O. T. "Boy-Girl Ability Differences in Elementary School Arithmetic," SCHOOL SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS 64:657-659, 1964.

Haven, E. W. FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH THE SELECTION OF ADVANCED ACADEMIC MATHEMATICS COURSES BY GIRLS IN HIGH SCHOOL. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1972.

Heard, I. M. "Mathematical Concepts and Abilities Possessed by Kindergarten Entrants," ARITHMETIC TEACHER 17:340-341, 1970.

Hilton, Thomas L. and Berglund, Gosta W. SEX DIFFERENCES IN MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1970.

Husen, T. (Ed.) INTERNATIONAL STUDY OF ACHIEVEMENT IN MATHEMATICS: A COMPARISON OF TWELVE COUNTRIES. New York: Wiley, 1967.

McGuire, C. "Sex Role and Community Variability in Test Performances," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY 52:61-73, 1961.

Parsley, J. M., Jr. and others. "Are There Really Sex Differences in Achievement of Under-, Average-, and Over-Achieving Students Within Five IQ Groups in Grades Four through Eight," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 57:268-270, 1964.



Stafford, R. E. "Hereditary and Environmental Components of Quantitative Reasoning," REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 42:183-201, Spring 1972.

Wozencraft, M. "Are Boys Better Than Girls in Arithmetic?" ARITHMETIC TEACHER 10:486-490, 1963.

Selected References: Sex Differences in Achievement

Horner, Matina S. "Fail: Bright Women," PSYCHOLOGY TODAY 3:29-31, November 1969.

Horner, Matina S. "Toward an Understanding of Achievement-Related Conflicts in Women," JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES 28:157-175, 1972.

Johnson, Charles E., Jr. and Jennings, Jerry T. "Sex Differentials in School Enrollment and Educational Attainment," EDUCATION 92:84-88, September/October 1971.

Levine, Adeline and Crumrine, Janice. WOMEN AND FEAR OF SUCCESS: A PROBLEM IN REPLICATION. (Presentation at American Sociological Association Meeting, August 1973)

Lunnebord, Patricia W. and Rosenwood, Linda W. NEED AFFILIATION AND ACHIEVE-MENT: DECLINING SEX DIFFERENCES. Seattle, Washington: University of Washington, Bureau of Testing, 1972.

Mayo, C. SOME PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF ACHIEVEMENT AND SELF-CONCEPT IN WOMEN. (Paper presented at the Massachusetts Personnel and Guidance Association Conference on Courseling Women for Tomorrow, Boston, January 1973)

Minuchin, Patricia P. "Sex Differences in Children," THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL 46:45-48, November 1966.

Rosenkrantz, P. and others. "Sex-Role Stereotypes and Self-Concepts in College Students," JOURNAL OF COUNSULTING PSYCHOLOGY 32:287-295, 1968.

"Sex Stereotypes and College-Bound Girls," p. 6. COLLEGE BOARD SUMMARY REPORTS, 1972-73 HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS COMPOSITE NATIONAL REPORT. New York, New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1974.

Shaw, M. C. and McCuen, J. T. "The Onset of Academic Underachievement in Bright Children," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY 51:103-108, 1960.

Selected References: Sex Differences (General)

Backman, Margaret E. "Patterns of Mental abilities: Ethnic, Socioeconomic, and Se Differences," AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH JOURNAL 9:1-12, Winter 1972.

Baruch, Grace K. "The Traditional Feminine Role: Some Negative Effects," THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR 21:285-289, March 1974.



39

Baumrind, D. "From Each According to Her Ability," SCHOOL REVIEW 80:161-198, 1972.

Bem, Sandra L. and Bem, Daryl J. TRAINING THE WOMAN TO KNOW HER PLACE: THE SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS OF WOMEN IN THE WORLD OF WORK. Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1973. (ED 082 098)

Bradway, K. P. and Thompson, C. W. "Intelligence at Adulthood: A Twenty-Five Year Followup," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY 53:1-14, 1962.

Freeman, Jo. "The Social Construction of the Second Sex," pp. 23-41, SEXISM AND YOUTH, by Dianne Gersoni-Stavn (Editor). New York: Bowker, 1974.

Garai, Josef E. and Scheinfeld, Amram. "Sex Differences in Mental and Behavioral Traits," GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY MONOGRAPHS 77:169-299, 1968.

Hartley, R. E. and others. "Children's Perceptions and Expressions of Sex Preferences," CHILD DEVELOPMENT 33:221-227, 1962.

Heinbrun, A. "Sex-Role Identity in Adolescent Females: A Theoretical Paradox," ADOLESCENCE 3:79-88, 1968.

Jacklin, C. N. and Maccoby, E. E. SEX DIFFERENCES IN INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES: A REASSESSMENT AND A LOOK AT SOME NEW EXPLANATIONS. (Paper presented at /merican Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Chicago 1972)

Kagan, Jerome. "The Emergence of Sex Differences," SCHOOL REVIEW 80: 217-228, February 1972.

Kangas, J. and Bradway, K. "Intelligence at Middle Age: A Thirty-Eight Year Followup," DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY 5:333-337, 1971.

Levy, Betty. "The School's Role in the Sex-Role Stereotyping of Girls: A Feminist Review of the Literature," pp. 49-69 in SEXISM AND YOUTH, by Dianne Gersoni-Stavn (Editor). New York: Bowker, 1974.

Maccoby, E. E. "Sex Differences in Intellectual Functioning," in THE DEVELOPMENT OF SEX DIFFERENCES, ρp. 25-55. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.

Maccoby, Eleanor Emmons and Jacklin, Carol Nagy. "What We Know and Don't Know about Sex Differences," PSYCHOLOGY TODAY 8:109-112, December 1974.

North Carolina Department of Public Instruction. Division of Research. STATE ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN NORTH CAROLINA. Raleigh, North Carolina: The Department, 1972.



SEX BIAS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS

-Highlights-

- There is considerable disagreement about having separate physical education programs and teams for girls and boys:
 - Supporters claim that girls and boys have different interests and abilities and that girls cannot successfully compete with boys in athletics.
 - Opponents argue that separate programs perpetuate sex-role stereotyping and inhibit the natural growth of relationships between girls and boys.
- In many cases, physical education and athletic programs discriminate against girls by providing more variety, more facilities, more staff, more equipment, and more benefits to boys.
- In many cases, physical education and athletic programs discourage boys of low ability, ignore boys of average ability, and harm boys of high ability with an excessive emphasis on winning.





SEX BIAS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS

Physical education programs should benefit all children and youth. Irrespective of sex, each student should have opportunity to develop his/her physical abilities, learn values such as teamwork and determination, and have fun with others through sports and physical activities. Physical growth cannot be separated from intellectual and emotional growth; and schools interested in developing the minds of students must assist them in developing their bodies.

A number of educators, parents, students, and other concerned citizens believe that the public schools are not meeting this responsibility. They claim that, directly or indirectly, many students are not receiving the full benefits of physical education and competitive athletics because of their sex.

Separate Physical Education and Athletic Programs

Beginning in the elementary school, girls and boys are grouped separately for athletic activities, sometimes playing different games, sometimes playing the same ones. As staff composition permits, male teachers generally supervise and instruct the boys, and vice versa.

Supporters of such sex-segregation claim that separate activities are arranged for girls and boys because each group has different interests. Girls, they claim, do not want to play rough games such as football; and boys do not want to play "girlish" games such as hop-scotch and volleyball. Critics reply that sex-segregated activities in athletics reinforce sexual stereotypes. Consequently, boys learn to be active, strong, and highly competitive; and girls learn to be passive, weak, and physically inactive. Boys learn that the worst insult for an athletic mistake is to be called a girl; and girls learn that the best compliment for an athletic achievement is to be compared to a boy. According to the critics, sex-segregated activities teach children that strong, competitive girls cannot be feminine, and that weak, non-competitive boys cannot be masculine. Such stereotyping persists in later life, they insist, and harms those of both sexes.

Another reason given for separate physical education programs and separate athletic teams is that girls would rather play with girls, and vice versa. Opponents of this view insist that separate programs prevent students from developing natural, satisfying relationships with those of the opposite sex. The more that girls and boys are kept apart, they explain, the less they understand each other. Gradually, they view the other sex as completely different, not just in basic physical characteristics, but in almost all aspects of their total beings and in everything they do and enjoy. Students learn that relationships between girls and boys should be romantic, while friendships should be reserved for those of the same sex. According to the critics, separation fosters misunderstanding and fear. Consequently, they say, many men are baffled by women; many women have deep-rooted fears about men; and many of both sexes have great difficulty relating to each other in any way except as sexually romantic partners.

55

1

Proponents of sex-segregation argue that having separate physical education programs and athletic teams for each sex protects girls from physical harm and from the psychological effects of continually losing to physically superior boys. Critics point out that girls and boys are about the same size and strength until puberty, and that girls as a group, have the strength, stamina, and skill to compete successfully and safely with boys during this early period.

After puberty, boys are physically stronger than girls, answer the supporters. Boys generally develop larger muscles and bones, and have a greater capacity for strenuous exercise, particularly in hot weather; whereas girls are not physically capable of competing with them. Critics reply that statistics about average sex differences do not apply to all individuals. Many girls have greater strength and stamina than many boys. According to their views, girls who want to participate in "all-male" activities and teams should be judged on their abilities and not on their sex. Opponents add that many activities taught in physical education and played competitively in the schools require more skill and coordination than brute strength. In these sports, girls often have the advantage.

Supporters say that girls are more likely to be injured because of their "fragile" bones and "vulnerable" reproductive organs. Critics answer that girls' bones are smaller but just as strong as those of boys. Likewise, according to many gynecologists, strenuous physical exercise will not injure female reproductive organs, but may, in fact, strengthen pelvic muscles. To prevent injury to their breasts, girls, it is suggested, might wear protective breast shields, similar to the protective equipment now worn by boys. Finally, as a general comparison, opponents of sex-segregated athletics explain that fewer girls are injured in physical education and in team athletics than boys, both in contact and non-contact sports.

The debate continues. Should schools maintain separate physical education programs and separate athletic teams for boys and girls? Supporters of this concept insist that girls and boys have different interests and abilities. Opponents of this philosophy argue against stereotyping these differences. Only as children and youth are encouraged to explore all the alternatives will the answer be known.

Discrimination Against Girls

A second major criticism of athletic programs in the public schools is that they discriminate against girls. In many cases, boys' programs have more variety, more facilities, more staff, more equipment, more benefits, and more money than programs for girls—For example, a study in Waco, Texas, revealed that the boys' athletic program received \$250,000 a year compared to \$970 for the girls' program. Boys could participate in inter-scholastic football, baseball, basketball, swimming, track, tennis, and golf; whereas, girls were offered only tennis. The Waco football/track field, stadium, and baseball fields were reserved for "boys"



only." When girls organized basketball teams in several junior high schools, they were told they could not enter inter-scholastic competition because "boys need the gym during the regular season."

Boys' teams often receive more money to pay for coaches. A study in Dallas, Texas, indicated that over 90 percent of the paid coaches in junior and senior high school were men. According to this report, female coaches were concentrated in the lowest paying coaching position—that of a physical education teacher who received no extra compensation for coaching and who also retained a full teaching load. Looking close to home, only one high school in North Carolina has a female athletic director.

Studies in other parts of the nation show similar inequities. While schools charter buses for boys to compete in out-of-town athletic activities, female athletes must often rely on cookie sales for their trips. Boys are more likely than girls to have team uniforms and to have them laundered by the school. Boys are also more likely to receive the tangible rewards of competitive athletics—school letters, trophies, and scholarships. The sports accomplishments of girls are too often unknown and unrewarded.

Inequalities in athletic scholarships are particularly damaging. While approximately 50,000 men are using these scholarships to attend college, only about 50 women have the same benefits. Until 1973, the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW) had a strict policy forbidding female athletes from competing in inter-scholastic sports if they received any tinancial aid based on athletic ability. By banning all financial aid for female athletes, the AIAW hoped to prevent abuses such as those found in financial aid programs for male athletes. Likewise, in 1973, the NEA Pivision of Girls' and Women's Sports finally lifted its official stand against athletic scholarships for girls, believing that "protecting" girls from recruiting hustles in this way also denied them equal opportunity.

Today more women are receiving athletic scholarships. Under a system in which males and temales face the same risks, they also receive the same rewards. Just as they have helped many boys, athletic scholarships now are helping many girls to attend college who would have been financially unable otherwise. As abuses occur, it is argued, athletes of both sexes can expose the culprits and clean up the system together.

Still, according to many sources, schools are not giving a fair share of their money and support to athletic programs for girls. School officials often defend these inequities by saying that girls are not interested in most sports and that rarely are they interested in inter-scholastic competition. But as critics of sex-segregated programs point out, stereotyping inside and outside the schools may be limiting the interests of girls. Only with adequate programs, facilities, coaches, equipment, and benefits will girls be able to discover their interests and develop their abilities.





Current Emphases as Barriers for Boys

A third major criticism of physical education and athletic programs in the public schools is that they damage, or at least do not help, a large number of boys. Many feel that conventional physical education programs discourage boys of low ability and provide few opportunities for those of average ability. In addition, according to these sources, competitive athletics harm boys of high ability by an excessive emphasis on winning.

The boy of low ability usually lacks strength and coordination. When he falls or makes a mistake, the other boys often laugh and call him a "sissy." According to the critics, a physical education teacher may encourage the boy and praise his best efforts; or he may try to shame the boy into improvement through impossible exercises and comments such as, "I'd be ashamed to have flabby arms like that!" The latter approach may be more likely if the physical education teacher is also a coach whose primary interest and job responsibility is to produce winning teams for the school. Obviously, in this situation, the boy of low ability is the loser, both in his own eyes and in the eyes of his peers.

Most boys in physical education programs are of average strength and ability. According to some critics, physical education teachers spend little time instructing these students, since they possess neither exceptional problems nor exceptional skills. In competitive sports, they have enough ability to play on an organized team, but not enough ability to make the varsity squads. Though some schools offer intra-mural teams for these students, only a few offer inter-scholastic programs. Consequently, critics feel that schools do not offer boys or girls of average ability sufficient opportunities to develop their skills and enjoy competitive athletics.

While boys of high ability receive more opportunities and rewards, they are also more likely to suffer from excessive pressures to win. As coaches and players insist, the varsity player, and particularly the "super-star," must dedicate himself to winning. His classmates, his parents, his teachers, his coaches, and the other players on the team expect this more than anything else. Moreover, he expects this of himself. He will sacrifice hours of hard, painful work for victory. He will push himself to the limit and beyond, if necessary, to achieve this goal. For many boys, this pressure begins at an early age with competitive football and baseball. Sometimes as young as eight years old, they start the long, difficult climb from "pee-wee" leagues to the major leagues.

Victory is not the only goal. For high school players, money is at stake too, in the form of college scholarships and professional contracts. Competition between coaches for players and among players for contracts is often intense. Consequently, many boys feel they dare not make a mistake, dare not dodge the pressure for one moment. They are afraid that one serious error or one bad day on the field will wipe out a college education or the only lucrative job they are likely to be offered. Critics doubt that such intense pressure is healthy, particularly for one of high school age.



38

Supporters feel that highly competitive athletics prepare boys for adult life. Competition in the business world is stiff, they say, and hard work and determination are the only roads to success. Critics, on the other hand, argue that the desire to win can become a harmful obsession. Neglected school work is not the only victim. According to these critics, many boys have been injured and some have been killed by pushing themselves beyond their physical limits. In the pursuit of victory, athletes on occasions have intentionally hurt competitors on opposing teams and on their own teams.

Critics are also concerned about boys who stake too much of their confidence and security on athletic achievements. Often these boys achieve little in school except on the playing field. If they are permanently injured or leave high school without an offer to play collegiate or professional sports, they often feel lost, confused, and apprehensive without another means of gaining recognition or earning a living. Those most concerned about these boys argue that no one can excel in athletics forever. Sooner or later, all athletes—even those with the most ability—must find new ways to excel and feel comfortable about themselves.

In conclusion, some critics believe that physical education programs and competitive athletics in the public schools are not benefiting all children and youth. In their view, girls are often discriminated against; while boys of low ability are discouraged, those of average ability are ignored, and those of high ability are harmed by excessive emphasis on winning. According to these critics, both girls and boys suffer when individual talents and interests are not recognized and nourished.

Potential Significance of Title IX

What can be done to make physical education programs, including competitive athletics, more beneficial to more children and youth? As one answer to this question, Congress has passed Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Implementation of this law will prohibit sex discrimination by any educational institution receiving federal money. Key provisions stipulate that:

- 1) At least once a year, institutions must determine in which sports students wish to participate.
- 2) Based on this survey, institutions, must take affirmative measures to provide equal opportunities for each sex to participate in athletic activities of their choice.
- 3) If separate teams for boys and girls are established, there can be no discrimination on the basis of sex in providing equipment or supplies, although total expenditures for each team do not have to be identical.
- 4) Where athletic opportunities for one sex have been limited, institutions must make affirmative efforts to inform members of that sex about the availability of equal opportunities and furnish support and training that will allow them to participate.



5.

Title IX does not dictate specific policies a school must follow for a given sport. And, of course, some schools may choose not to have an athletic program at all. But in those schools with athletic programs, policies must be applied equally to both sexes, whether they concern students or employees. Schools must decide for themselves whether equal opportunity is best achieved through heterosexual programs or separate-but-equal programs.

While Title IX will not eliminate all sex-related problems in athletics and physical education programs, it is a strong beginning. It provides guidelines for voluntary action by the schools, but threatens cutoff of federal funds when compliance is not forthcoming. Similar to earlier legislation which outlawed racial discrimination, this act may also revolutionize public education.

Selected References

Boring, Phyllis Zatlin. "Girls' Sports: Focus on Equality." Published by the Women's Equity Action League, 538 National Press Building, Washington, D. C. 20004. Author reports finding of a study conducted in about fifty New Jersey school districts. Data illustrates prevalent sex discrimination in athletic programs.

EDUCATION, U.S.A.; February 4, 1974; published by the National School Public Relations Association.

Engle, Kathleen M. "Revolution in Sports: The Greening of Girls' Sports," NATION'S SCHOOLS 92:27-34, September 1973. Article points out existing double standards in sports and efforts made at equalization.

Federal Register 39, Number 120, June 20, 1974. Publication prints the proposed rules for Title IX.

Harris, Dorothy Virginia. "Myths," THE FIRST AIDER FOR WOMEN 1:1-2, March 1974. Author reviews various myths that surround women as athletes.

Project on the Education and Status of Women, "What Constitutes Equality for Women in Sport," Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20009. This study explores existing discriminatory policies concerning female athletic opportunities and teaching positions. It also comments on the implications of Title IX.



69

SURVEY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETIC PROGRAMS IN NORTH CAROLINA 1974-1975*

Introduction

This study was designed to provide a picture of female and male involvement in physical education and athletic programs in the secondary schools of North Carolina.

A total of 211 schools were selected at random to participate in the investigation. Approximately 36 percent of the schools were junior high schools, whereas 64 percent of the schools enrolled students in grades 10-12.

A questionnaire was sent to the principal of each school. The principal was asked to delegate responsibility for completing the questionnaire to a school official directly involved in the physical education and athletic programs. Of the 211 respondents, 18 percent were coaches; four percent were physical education teachers; 51 percent served in the dual capacity of physical education instructor and coach; and 27 percent were principals and assistant principals.

When the questionnaires were being summarized, it was discovered that only nine females were assigned the responsibility for completing the survey form. Since the ratio of respondents was so heavy on the male side, there was no attempt to report results by female and male respondents. In cases where the investigator observed that the differences between the few females and the males were dramatic, these data were presented. (See last section of this report.) The fact that such a small number of females was asked to complete the scale, however, might raise the question as to whether females are bypassed on other important responsibilities associated with secondary physical education and athletic programs.

Interscholastic Sports Offered to Girls and Boys

Among 211 schools surveyed, the average school offered 5.61 interscholastic teams for boys as compared to 2.79 teams for girls.

Considering the four major team sports, 91 percent of the schools sponsor baseball teams for boys; 99 percent, basketball; 100 percent, football; and 98 percent, crack and field. By contrast, in these schools there are no girls' teams in baseball and football; while 85 percent of the schools sponsor basketball and 48 percent track and field for girls.

These same schools, however, support more girl teams in softball, volleyball, and gymnastics; and approximately the same number of teams for girls and boys in swimming, tennis, dance, and badminton. These sports, it must be added, are not offered by many of the schools which participated in the survey.

* This survey was coordinated by Ms. Jeanne Heningburg, Administrative Intern to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.



Other team sports that are predominately offered to male students include golf, wrestling, and cross country. Approximately 44 percent of the secondary schools have wrestling teams for boys; no wrestling teams were reported for girls.

Female and Male Coaches

Approximately 30 percent of the female teams are coached by males, whereas only two percent of the male teams have female mentors. Female responsibility for coaching boys' teams is almost entirely limited to minor sports such as softball, swimming, dance, gymnastics, and badminton. Only 13 or fewer schools offer teams in these sports.

Male coaches, on the other hand, are far more involved in coaching the girls' teams. For example, a relatively large number of males coach girls' teams in basketball (44 percent), softball (26 percent), swimming (36 percent), track and field (17 percent), tennis (36 percent), golf (85 percent), cross country (100 percent), and dance (25 percent). Furthermore, six percent of the 589 girls' teams are coached by faculty members of both sexes.

Attitudes About Sex Roles in Physical Education and Athletics

The faculty representatives at the 211 secondary schools were also requested to express their attitudes regarding the roles of females and males in the secondary schools' physical education and athletic programs. Consensus (over 50 percent agreeing or disagreeing) was expressed on the statements which follow:

. Ninety-four percent of the respondents do not believe that both sexes should participate on the same interscholastic teams, regardless of the type of athletic event.

When asked the same question about specific individual and team sports, the respondents answered as follows:

On individual sports, over 50 percent of the respondents think that females and males should be on the same tennis, golf, swimming, gymnastics, and dance teams. By contrast, a majority believe that both sexes should not participate on the same teams in track and field (53 percent), cross country (50 percent), and wrestling (92 percent).

Regarding team sports, over three-fourths of the respondents reported that girls and boys should not play on the same baseball, basketball, soccer, football, and field hockey teams; whereas 61 percent had a similar opinion in regard to softball. On the other hand, fewer than one-half (47 percent) were opposed to both sexes playing on the same volleyball team.



- . Fifty-three percent of the respondents think that females should not coach all boys' teams.
- . Sixty-eight percent of the respondents believe that female and male teams should be treated equally in regard to the use of facilities, allocation of funds, assignment of coaches, and salaries of coaches.
- . Sixty-six percent of the respondents expressed the opinion that girls and boys should not be assigned to the same physical education classes.
- . Seventy-nine percent of the respondents stated that both sexes should have equal opportunity for participation and have equal status.

Lack of consensus (fewer than 50 percent agreed or disagreed) was observed on the items which follow:

- . males make better coaches than females
- . males should coach all girls' teams
- . girls and boys should participate on the same intramural teams.

Answers Given by Female Respondents

Although only nine females answered this questionnaire, their responses were summarized separately to point out possible trends that were different from the total group which was predominately male. Overall, it was observed that the females were more in favor than the male respondents of boys and girls participating on the same athletic teams. Also, the female faculty members expressed attitudes that placed their sex in a more favorable light in regard to ability and opportunity to participate.

For example, the female respondents were:

- . Less prone to think males were better coaches than females
- . Less prone to think that males should coach girls! teams
- . Less prone to think that females should coach boys' teams
- . More prone to think that female and male teams should be treated equally in the regard to use of facilities, allocation of funds, assignment of coaches, and salaries of coaches
- . More prone to think that girls and boys should be assigned to the same physical education classes
- . More prone to think that girls and boys should be on the same athletic teams, especially in the individual sports such as swimming and tennis.



SEX BIAS IN OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

-Highlights-

- Many of the occupational education programs in North Carolina are segregated on the basis of sex:
 - Most of the students enrolled in courses concerning agriculture and skilled trades are boys.
- Most of the students enrolled in home economics, child care, fashion merchandising, office occupations, and cosmetology are girls.
- Sex-role stereotyping in occupational education prevents many students from competing for available job opportunities and meeting personal needs.
- . Critics blame teachers, guidance counselors, school administrators, and parents for failing to inform students about new job opportunities for both sexes and failing to encourage students to explore all occupational education courses.
- In recent years, enrollment patterns indicate some slight changes away from traditional sex-role stereotyping in occupational education.





MY DOG IS A PLUMBER

by Dan Greenburg



My dog is a plumber, he must be a boy.

Although I must tell you his favorite toy
Is a little play stove with pans and with pots
Which he really must like, 'cause he plays with it lots.
So perhaps he's a girl, which kind of makes sense,
Since he can't throw a ball and he can't climb a fence.
But neither can Dad, and I know he's a man,
And Mom is a woman, and she drives a van.
Maybe the problem is in trying to tell
Just what someone is by what he does well.



--Reprinted with permission of the Free to be Foundation, Inc.



SEX BIAS IN OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

Separate Courses for Girls and Boys

According to a recent survey, many of the occupational education courses in the North Carolina public schools are segregated on the basis of sex. Most of the students enrolled in courses concerning agriculture or trades such as plumbing, electronics, auto mechanics, or welding are male. Most of the students enrolled in home economics, child care, fashion merchandising, office occupations, and cosmetology courses are females. Of 140 regular occupational education courses offered in grades 7-12, twenty-one have over 90 percent female enrollment; and sixty-four have over 90 percent male enrollment.

Many people believe that these patterns reflect traditional sex-role stereotypes. Conventional concepts suggest, for example, that a man's place is on the job, but a woman's place is in the home; that men have more mechanical interest and ability than women; that women have more interest and ability than men in decorating and fashion; and that men are best suited to be plumbers, electricians, carpenters, and brick-masons, while women are best suited to be secretaries, nurses, teachers, and librarians.

According to numerous sources, girls and boys are afraid to contradict these stereotypes and are skeptical about their job opportunities in non-traditional fields. Certainly, discrimination in hiring has discouraged many people of both sexes from pursuing careers formerly reserved for one sex.

However, recent legislation and changing attitudes are opening many jobs to both sexes. In fact, for example, a major telephone company is actively recruiting female equipment installers and male telephone operators. Likewise, male nurses and female engineers are more and more in demand.

Without the necessary preparation, many students will not be able to compete for all available job opportunities. In addition, such training can be important for many people in their everyday lives. For example, a woman who knows basic auto mechanics can probably save herself a considerable amount of time, trouble, and money. Likewise, a man can be of great service to himself and his family if he knows how to cook, sew, and take care of children.

Critics blame parents, teachers, guidance counselors, and school administrators for failing to inform students about new job opportunities for both sexes and failing to encourage students to explore all occupational education courses. These critics have made several suggestions for opening occupational education courses to all girls and boys:

. Hire more women to teach traditionally male courses and vice versa.



C5

. Invite non-traditional role models to the school for students to meet; e.g., female mechanics, painters, electricians, and carpenters; and male nurses, kindergarten teachers, hairdressers, and interior decorators.

Use instructional materials, posters, bulletin boards, etc., depicting females in traditional male occupations and vice versa.

Signs of Change

In the last few years, enrollment patterns in occupational education have been changing:

Many traditionally male courses are increasing their female enrollment.

Agricultural Science and Mechanics, for instance, had 65 girls in 1971 and now has 127 out of a total enrollment of 5,786. That is a 100 percent increase, but the numbers are tiny. Similarly, Automotive Mechanics went from 30 girls to 84 in the same three year period. Although this is a 200 percent increase, the proportion of girls is only two percent.

Many traditionally female courses are increasing their male enrollment.

The number of boys in home economics courses increased from 1,380 in 1971 to 4,861 in 1973. While 3,342 of these boys in 1973 were enrolled in Boys' Home Economics. 13 percent of the students in Exploratory Home Economics (traditionally a female course) during the same year were male.

The number of totally one-sex courses is shrinking.

In 1971, there were 32 courses in the state that had no girls enrolled. There were two courses that had no boys. In 1973, 23 of these courses have included some members of the other sex. For example, in 1971, Internal Combustion Engine I had no girls at all. In 1972, there were six; in 1973, there were 17 (as compared to 771 boys).

While these figures do indicate some change from traditional sex-role stereotypes in occupational education, the changes are small. Only through the concentrated efforts of parents, teachers, guidance counselors, and school administrators will students of both sexes learn skills they can use in the job market and in their everyday lives.



CS

SURVEY OF OCCUPATIONAL COURSES IN NORTH CAROLINA

TABLE I

Female Courses (i.e., regular courses having over 90 percent female enrollment in 1973-74)*

Fashion Merchandising I Fashion Merchandising II

1

Health Occupations II

Introductory Home Economics
Advanced Home Economics
Home Economics III
Child Development
Clothing and Textiles
Foods and Nutrition
Housing and Home Furnishings

Introductory Clothing
Cooperative Home Economics
Health and Management Services
Clothing Services
Child Care Services
Introductory Foods

Cooperative Office Occupations
Directed Office Occupations

Cosmetology I Cosmetology II

* Data supplied by Management Information Systems, North Carolina Department of Public Education

C



SURVEY OF OCCUPATIONAL COURSES IN NORTH CAROLINA

TABLE II

Male Courses (i.e., regular courses having over 90 percent male enrollment in 1973-74)*

Introduction to Agriculture Agricultural Science & Mechanics Construction Industry Farm Production Farm Management Agricultural Cooperative ! Agricultural Cooperative II Agricultural Chemicals Agricultural Business Operation and Management Agricultural Construction I Agricultural Construction II Agricultural Mechanics I Agricultural Mechanics II Crop and Soil Technology Livestock and Poultry Technology Internal Combustion Engine II Forestry General Forestry Pulpwood Production

Cooperative Petroleum Marketing

Boys Home Economics

Carpentry I Carpentry II Painting and Decorating 11 Basic Technical Drafting II Architectural Drafting III Plumbing II. Basic Electricity I Basic Electricity/ Electronics II Electrical Installation II Radio and TV Service II

Automotive Industry Electrical Industry Furniture Industry Metal Industry General Industry Aerospace Industry Aerospace I Aerospace II Auto Body and Fender Repair I Auto Body and Fender Repair II Automotive Mechanics I Automotive Mechanics II Internal Combustion Engine I Gas Engine Repair Small Automotive Service Station Specialist Bricklaying I Bricklaying II Cabinetmaking I Cabinetmaking II Furniture I Furniture II

Marine Vocations II

Air Conditioning and Refrigeration I Air Conditioning and Refrigeration II Machine Shop I Machine Shop II Sheet Metal I Sheet Metal II Welding I welding II Industrial Machine Maintenance I Industrial Machine Maintenance II

Data supplied by Management Information Systems, North Carolina Department of Public Education CP



SURVEY OF OCCUPATIONAL COURSES IN NORTH CAROLINA

TABLE III

Mixed Courses (i.e., regular courses having less than 90 percent enrollment by either sex in 1973-74)*

Agricultural Sales and
Services I
Agricultural Sales and
Services II
General Horticulture
Ornamental Horticulture I
Ornamental Horticulture II
Outdoor Recreation and
Ecology I
Outdoor Recreation and
Ecology II

Career in Distribution
Marketing I
Marketing II
Salesmanship (Semester)
Salesmanship
Advertising
Advertising and Advertising Art
Cooperative Distributive
Education I
Cooperative Distributive
Education II
Cooperative Food Marketing
Cooperative Teacher Aide
Training

Automotive Engine Tune-Up I
Painting and Decorating I
Introduction to Technical
Drafting I
Electric Appliance Repair II
Marineology I
Marine Vocations I

Health Occupations I
Health Occupations Cooperative Training

Exploratory Home Economics
Interpersonal Relationships
Consumer Education and Management
Introductory Family Relations
Family Life Education
Preparation for Employment
Preparation for Professions
Food Services
Clothing Services
Home Furnishing Services
Commercial Cooking and Baking I
Commercial Cooking and Baking II

Introduction to Data Processing Keypunch Computer Science

Ceramics Industry
Graphics Industry
Personal Services
Textile Industry
Industrial Cooperative Training I
Industrial Cooperative Training II
Industrial Cooperative Training I and II
Graphics and Industry Communications I
Graphics and Industry Communications II
Photography I
Commercial Art I
Tailoring I
Tailoring II
Textiles I
Textiles II

Data supplied by Management Information Systems, North Carolina Department of Public Education



SEX BIAS IN HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

-Highlights-

- Many high school guidance counselors do not encourage girls to develop and value their intellectual abilities.
- . Many high school guidance counselors do not help girls to realize that a career may be important for their future economic survival and personal fulfillment.
- . Many high school guidance counselors fail to encourage students to explore all career opportunities.
- . Many high school guidance counselors fail to inform students that many jobs are now open to both sexes which were formerly open to only one sex.
- . Many high school guidance counselors fail to encourage students to prepare for "non-traditional" jobs.





SEX BIAS IN HIGH SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

"The essential differences between the sexes will never disappear; nature will see to that. The essential attraction between man and woman will never disappear; nature will see to that. The school's and society's job is to provide an atmosphere in which each male and female will develop fully as a person for the benefit of everyone."

-- June Heinrich

The Role of the High School Guidance Counselor

One of the most important responsibilities of a high school guidance counselor is to help students make decisions about the future. By providing information, guidance, and encouragement, a counselor should help each student to examine his/her abilities and interests, set personal goals, explore the requirements and rewards of various occupations and educational programs which might lead to these goals, and pursue those alternatives best suited to his/her needs, interests, and abilities.

Sex Bias on the Part of High School Guidance Counselors

Critics claim that many high school guidance counselors are not fulfilling their responsibilities to all students. They contend that many counselors limit students on the basis of their sex, perpetuating traditional sex biases found in the world of work and in the world of higher education. The charges fall into three general categories:

1. Many high school guidance counselors do not encourage girls to value and develop their intellectual abilities.

Facts indicate that many girls do not value, or develop, their intellectual abilities. Several studies, for example, report that girls consider themselves intellectually inferior to boys, although intelligence tests show comparable ability. Although girls generally make better grades than boys throughout school, they are less likely than boys to attend college; those females who do attend college are more likely to drop out before graduation than their male counterparts.

Critics claim that high school guidance counselors, as well as parents and teachers, are partially responsible for this waste of female talent and intelligence. In their view, many counselors perpetuate traditional sex biases which suggest that education is more important for a boy than a girl and that the most important reason for a girl to attend college is "husband-hunting." For example, a counselor may tell high ability girls that a college degree is "something to fall back on," while, at the same time, encouraging boys with high ability to pursue graduate degrees. A girl of low or



average ability may be advised to learn typing and become a secretary after high school, while a boy of comparable ability will be advised to enroll in a junior college or technical school. As critics point out, such practices discourage girls from valuing, developing, and using their intellectual abilities.

2. Many high school guidance counselors do not help girls to realize that a career may be important for their personal satisfaction and necessary for their economic survival.

According to the critics, females are discouraged throughout life from being assertive, competitive, and ambitious. In their view, girls have low aspiration levels as compared to boys primarily because girls are taught to be afraid of success and because they are indoctrinated with the concept that one cannot be competitive and aggressive and still be "feminine." Consequently, many girls doubt that they could or should be successful at anything except marriage and child-rearing.

While acknowledging that being a wife and mother is an important and often rewarding role in life, many sources point out that a woman need not exclude the exploration or pursuit of other satisfactions. According to these sources, guidance counselors, as well as parents and teachers, fail to stress the fact that a career can offer personal growth and fulfillment to a woman, whether she has a family or not. Too often, they contend, counselors present a job as something a woman can "fall back on" if she does not marry a man who can support her.

In addition, according to such critics, guidance counselors often fail to inform girls that they may need to work for their economic survival. Approximately 17 million women are working because they are single, widowed, corred, separated, or have husbands earning less than \$3000 a year. Another 4.7 million have husbands earning between \$3000-\$7000 a year. These women work because they need the money to support themselves and their families.

Many girls in high school do not realize they may need to work, possibly during their entire lives. Girls from low socio-economic backgrounds are particularly vulnerable to the harsh realities which, likely, they will face when their schooling ends and their economic survival hinges upon the preparation they have made for a career. Critics blame guidance counselors for failing to inform girls about economic realities and for failing to encourage them to prepare for satisfying and financially rewarding careers.

Without such information and encouragement, many females may be unwilling and/or unable to develop their talents and utilize available opportunities in the world of work. As Elizabeth D. Koontz, a nationally known North Carolina educator, explains:

"The question is not whether it is possible for a woman to enter almost any field she chooses; obvicusly it is possible. But she must have a lot more drive to succeed. She must at a comparatively early age have encouragement, self-confidence, and commitment to a goal to go her own way."



3. Many high school guidance counselors fail to encourage students to explore all career opportunities.

Traditionally, most jobs have been separated on the basis of sex, with women generally having those with lowest pay and most humble status. Relatively few women hold professional positions, such as doctors, lawyers, engineers, or university professors. Similarly, few women are in positions of authority and leadership such as business managers, judges, or governmental officials. By and large, most women are employed as secretaries, clerks, librarians, teachers, nurses, or waitresses. As a result, the average woman worker earns less than three-fifths of what a man earns.

Many believe that traditional biases, found inside and outside of schools, have kept women at the bottom of the economic ladder. Myths about the capabilities and problems of female workers are deeply rooted in the past, when few women worked outside the home and when jobs were almost completely separated according to sex. As discussed later in more detail, these myths include such unwarranted concepts as the following:

- . A woman's place is in the home.
- . Women do not want responsibility.
- . Female workers are unreliable.
- . The employment of mothers leads to juvenile delinquency.
- . Women don't really need to work.

Though untrue, these beliefs perpetuate both overt and subtle forms of discrimination in the world of work.

Although males generally have more and better job opportunities than females, they too are limited by the belief that gender is a valid job qualification. There are few male nurses, librarians, secretaries, or kindergarten and elementary school teachers. Sex bias in the world of work often prevents men from exploring these occupations or being hired if they apply for them. It is increasingly obvious that sex-role stereotyping in employment definitely limits both males and females to those occupations considered appropriate for their sex.

Critics contend that many high school guidance counselors direct girls into traditionally "female occupations" and boys into traditionally "male occupations," regardless of their interests or abilities. For example, a counselor may talk with boys about careers in bricklaying, engineering, auto mechanics, and business management; while talking with girls about secretarial, nursing, hairdressing, and teaching careers. Frequently, there are different guidance brochures for each sex; and students of one sex are encouraged to talk with representatives of certain businesses about job opportunities, while students of the other sex are assumed not to be interested.



Certainly such sex-role stereotyping hurts both girls and boys. For example, what happens to the boy who is interested in medicine, but lacks the ability, money, or desire to become a doctor? Often he gives up without considering other health related careers such as nursing, paramedic, or laboratory technician. What happens to the girl who is interested in medicine? She may be encouraged to be a nurse or medical technician, but may never be encouraged to be a doctor.

What happens to the girls and boys who want to learn technical skills with which they can earn decent livings? Without the support of school guidance counselors, parents, and others, many boys never consider such "feminine" careers as being a stenographer or a telephone operator; and many girls never consider such "masculine" careers as being a plumber, electrician, or truck driver.

High school guidance counselors should help each student to explore all career opportunities which might match his/her needs, interests, and abilities. Critics contend that many guidance counselors are neglecting this responsibility by limiting students on the basis of their sex.

4. Many high school guidance counselors fail to inform students that many jobs are now open to both sexes which were formerly open to only one sex.

Due to recent legislation and changing attitudes, many careers formerly reserved for one sex are now open to qualified applicants of both sexes. In fact, some companies are actively seeking women to fill traditionally male jobs and vice versa. For example, a major telephone company is recruiting female installers, sales people, and managers, while at the same time, looking for male telephone operators. Female engineers and scientists as well as male kindergarten teachers are more and more in demand.

Many girls and boys are unaware of such opportunities and, consequently, do not explore or prepare for them. Critics blame high school guidance counselors for much of this ignorance. For example, the Citizen's Advisory Committee on the Status of Women concluded:

...Many counselors and teachers lack information and sensitivity to changing life patterns of women and to widening vocational and higher education opportunities resulting from changing attitudes and equal opportunity legislation.

Such critics contend that, either because of ignorance or because of stereotyped attitudes, many high school guidance counselors are not giving girls and boys the realistic, up-to-date information they need in order to take advantage of new career opportunities.

5. Many high school guidance counselors fail to encourage students to prepare for "non-traditional" job opportunities.





As educators and employers agree, students not only need information and encouragement in order to fill new career opportunities; they need training as well. Many critics claim that high school guidance counselors, as well as parents and teachers, do not encourage students to prepare for non-traditional job opportunities. Consequently, they explain, over half of the females in public vocational courses are being trained in home economics; about one-third are studying office practices. On the other hand, very few females are being prepared for trades and industry, health occupations, or technical jobs. Likewise, very few males are studying home economics, child care, or clerical skills.

Without adequate training, a person cannot compete for all available job opportunities. In addition, knowing such skills as cooking, sewing, child care, auto repair, and plumbing can be very helpful for members of both sexes in their everyday personal lives.



SEX BIAS IN CAREER INTEREST INVENTORIES*

Because of the current national movement toward eliminating sex discrimination, test experts and publishers have begun to take a closer look at possible sex bias in career interest inventories. They have found rampant sex bias in some of the most widely used inventories. This paper presents (1) a background on relevant federal legislation; (2) a definition of sex bias; (3) descriptions of some specific interest inventories in relation to sex bias. The reader is also referred to the NIE's "Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories."

1. Background on Relevant Federal Legislation

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibits sex discrimination in federally-assisted education programs:

No person in the United States shall on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance.

The proposed implementation rules for Title IX (which have not yet received final approval) specifically deal with appraisal and counseling materials:

A recipient which uses testing or other materials for appraising or counseling students shall not use different materials for different students on the basis of their sex or use materials which permit or require different treatment of students on such basis.

Those rules, if approved, would prohibit use of any interest inventory which permits differential treatment of male and female students.

2. A Definition of Sex Bias

The National Institute of Education (NIE) offers the following definition of sex bias in career guidance:

* Prepared by Rebecca Manley, Evaluation Consultant, Research Division, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction.



F. (7)

Within the context of career guidance, sex bias is defined as any factor that might influence a person to limit--or might cause others to limit--his or her considerations of a career solely on the basis of gender.

3. Descriptions of Various Interest Inventories in Relation to Sex Bias

Since the use of sex-discriminatory interest inventories may soon become illegal under Title IX, it might be wise to examine some specific inventories in relation to sex bias. The following list does not cover all interest inventories currently in use. Since it is impossible to discuss in this paper the sex bias aspects of all interest inventories, it is recommended that readers of this paper use NIE's "Guidelines for Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories" in order to assess any interest inventories not mentioned here. It should be noted that this present paper does not deal with the technical qualities (reliability and validity) of various interest inventories; for information on those qualities, Buros' Mental Measurement Yearbooks are the best source.

- (a) Strong Vocational Interest Blank: This has been cited for sex bias because it has two separate test booklets, one for males and one for females; contains explicitly sexist items (e.g., Do you like stag parties?); contains gender-loaded occupational titles (policeman, salesman instead of police officer, salesperson); includes an antiquated Masculinity-Femininity scale; limits the options of women (and to some extent men) solely on the basis of sex.
- (b) Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory: This is a 1974 revision of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and it eliminates the major sex-bias problems mentioned for the SVIB. It is recommended for use with students who are professionally oriented.
- (c) Holland's Self-Directed Search: This inventory has been cited for sex bias because of the sex-typed activities used under the categories "Realistic" and "Conventional" in the test booklet and because of the use of gender-specific occupational titles such as "advertising man."
- (d) Kuder Occupational Interest Survey, Form DD: In March, 1974 there were revisions in the reporting system and in the interpretive leaflet. These revisions were made with the intent of removing sex bias. No longer are women's interests compared only on female-normed occupational scales. Now both males and females receive scores on both male-normed and female-normed occupational scales. Form DD is generally free from gender-linked items, although a few remain. It is intended for college students, students in grades 11-12, and adults.
- (e) <u>Kuder General Interest Survey, Form E</u> (new version of Form C):
 This inventory measures interests in ten broad areas: outdoor,



mechanical, scientific, computational, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service, and clerical. It provides two levels of profile leaflets (one for grades 6-8 and one for grades 9-12). Because Form E deals with general vocational areas, it helps the junior or senior high school student make sound choices in school and encourages him/her to think about future education and occupation. Vocabulary is at sixth-grade level. Interpretive materials have been revised to explain why there are separate norms for males and females. Both male and female profiles are reported for any given person if the sex grid is left blank on the machine-scorable answer sheet. On the hand-scored version, the student can develop both male and female profiles.

(f) The Non-Sexist Vocational Card Sort: This inventory was designed by Cindy Rice Dewey, University Counseling Center, University of Florida, with the express purpose of providing an unbiased means of assessing vocational interests. It allows for close interaction between client and counselor, uses gender-neutral occupational titles, and is based on Holland's six personality types.



RESEARCH STUDIES WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

Lewis M. Terman - Gifted women do not achieve prominence in professional and managerial occupations to the same degree that men do. Terman's book, THE GIFTED CHILD AT MID-LIFE: THIRTY-FIVE YEARS' FOLLOWUP OF THE SUPERIOR CHILD, reports on his longitudinal study of over 1,300 intellectually gifted men and women. The subjects were ten years old when the study began. Today, 86 percent of the gifted men in the study have achieved prominence as professional leaders and managers. Of the gifted women in the study who were employed, 37 percent were nurses, librarians, social workers and noncollege teachers. Twenty percent were clerical workers. Only 11 percent are in the higher professions of law, medicine, university teaching, engineering, science, economics, and the like. A staggering 61 percent of these highly gifted women are full time homemakers.

Matina S. Horner² - The majority of women have a "motive to avoid success." Noted sociologist and president of Radcliffe College, Dr. Horner's research on females' "motive to avoid success" shows how women perceive intellectual competition, independence, and competence as masculine characteristics. Because of their social conditioning, they try to avoid these characteristics.

<u>Vivian P. Makosky³ - For women, success in competitive situations may produce negative social sanctions.</u> This study is very similar to the Horner research. The hypothesis was that for women, success in competitive achievement situations may produce negative sanctions, resulting in a motive to avoid success.

Carol K. Tittle⁴ - The presence of sex role stereotyping in tests from four major publishers is documented. Research conducted by Dr. Tittle of the City University of New York examined two aspects of sex discrimination in achievement tests: language usage and item content. In addition, occupational interest inventories were examined for restriction of individual choice.

Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson⁵ - Teachers' expectations strongly influence students' achievements. In a famous study which drew nationwide attention, these researchers proved that people usually do what is expected of them. Their book, PYGMALION IN THE CLASSROOM, reports on their experiment in which a group of elementary school children were labeled "gifted" to their teachers when in fact these students were randomly selected. Some were below average, some were average, and some above average. E 3ht months later these "magic" children showed significantly greater gains in IQ than did the remaining children who had not been singled for the teachers' attention. The change in the teachers' expectations red ding the intellectual performance of these allegedly special children had led to an actual change in their performance. The implications of this study for the education of girls are that social expectations which surround students strongly influence their outcomes.

Paul Torrance⁶ - Differing treatment of boys and girls can limit them in aspiration and achievement. For more than a decade, Paul Torrance, a psychologist interested in creativity, has been conducting useful experiments with



young children. Using a Products Improvement Test, he asked first-grade boys and girls to make toys more fun to play with. Many of the boys refused to play with the nurses kit, protesting, "I'm a boy!" A few creative boys turned the nurses kit into a doctors kit and were free to think of improvements. Experiments with third, fourth, and fifth graders using science toys verified "the inhibiting effects of sex-role conditioning." Girls were reluctant to play with the science toys at all, thinking them unfeminine. Torrance's experiments show how different treatment of boys and girls can limit them in aspiration and achievement.

Eleanor Maccoby 7 - Effects of a working mother on her children are dependent on many factors. From her research, Maccoby concludes that some mothers should work while others should not, and the outcome for the children depends upon many factors other than the employment itself. Some of these factors are: the nature of the mother's motivation to work, the mother's skill in child care and that of her substitute, the presence or absence of tension in the home, the quality of the time the mother spends with her child.

Footnotes

- Terman, Lewis M., Editor. THE GIFTED GROUP AT MID-LIFE: THIRTY-FIVE YEARS' FOLLOWUP OF THE SUPERIOR CHILD. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1959.
- Horner, Matina S. "Toward an Understanding of Achievement-Related Conflicts in Women," JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES 23:157, No. 2, 1972.
- 3. Makosky, Vivian P. FEAR OF SUCCESS, SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION OF THE TASK, AND COMPETITIVE CONDITION AS VARIABLES AFFECTING WOMEN'S PERFORMANCE IN ACHIEVEMENT-ORIENTED SITUATIONS. (Paper presented at Midwestern Psychological Association Annual Meeting, Cleveland, Ohio, 1972)
- 4. Tittle, Carol K.; Saario, Terry N.; and Jacklin, Carol N. "Sex Role Stereotyping in the Public Schools," HARVARD EDUCATION REVIEW 43:386-416, August 1973.
- 5. Rosenthal, Robert and Jacobson, Lenore. PYGMALION IN THE CLASSROOM. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968.
- 6. "Educating Women, No More Sugar and Spice," special section. SATUR-DAY REVIEW 54:76+, October 16, 1971. (This is for Torrance)
- 7. Maccoby, Eleanor E. and Jacklin, Carol N. SEX DIFFERENCES IN INTEL-LECTUAL ABILITIES: A REASSESSMENT AND A LOOK AT SOME NEW EXPLANATIONS. Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1972.

FACTS THAT COUNSELORS SHOULD KNOW ABOUT WOMEN WORKERS

The Myth and the Reality

The Myth

The Reality

A woman's place is in the home.

Homemaking in itself is no longer a full-time job for most people. Goods and services formerly produced in the home are now commercially available; laborsaving devices have lightened or eliminated much work around the home.

Today more than half of all women between 18 and 64 years of age are in the labor force, where they are making a substantial contribution to the Nation's common. Studies show that 9 out of 10 girls will work outside the home at some time in their lives.

Women aren't seriously attached to the labor force; they work only for extra pocket money.

Of the nearly 34 million women in the labor force in March 1973, nearly half were working because of pressing economic need. They were either single, widowed, divorced, or separated or had husbands whose incomes were less than \$3,000 a year. Another 4.7 million had husbands with incomes between \$3,000 and \$7,000.

Women are out ill more than male workers; they cost the company more.

A recent Public Health Service study shows little difference in the absentee rate due to illness or injury; 5.6 days a year for women compared with 5.2 for men.

Women don't work as long or as regularly as their male coworkers; their training is costly--and largely wasted. A declining number of women leave work for marriage and children. But even among those who do leave, a majority return when their children are in school. Even with a break in employment, the average woman worker has a worklife expectancy of 25 years as compared with 43 years for the average male worker. The single woman a erages 45 years in the labor force.

¹The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimate for a low standard of living for an urban family of four was \$7,386 in autumn 1972. This estimate is for a family consisting of an employed husband aged 38, a wife not employed outside the home, an 8-year-old girl, and a 13-year-old boy.



The Myth

(continued)

Married womer take jobs away from men; in fact, they ought to quit those jobs they now hold.

Women should stick to "women's jobs" and shouldn't compete for "men's jobs."

Women don't want responsibility on the job; they don't want promotions or job changes which add to their load.

The employment of mothers leads to juvenile delinquency.

The Reality

Studies on labor turnover indicate that net differences for men and women are generally small. In manufacturing industries the 1968 rates of accessions per 100 employees were 4.4 for men and 5.3 for women; the respective separation rates were 4.4 and 5.2.

There were 19.8 million married women (husbands present) in the labor force in March 1973; the number of unemployed men was 2.5 million. If all the married women stayed home and unemployed men were placed in their jobs, there would be 17.3 million unfilled jobs.

Moreover, most unemployed men do not have the education or the skill to qualify for many of the jobs held by women, such as secretaries, teachers, and nurses.

Job requirements, with extremely rare exceptions, are unrelated to sex. Tradition rather than job content has led to labeling certain jobs as women's and others as men's. In measuring 22 inherent aptitudes and knowledge areas, a research laboratory found that there is no sex difference in 14, women excel in 6, and men excel in 2.

Relatively few women have been offered positions of responsibility. But when given these opportunities, women, like men, do cope with job responsibilities in addition to personal or family responsibilities. In 1973, 4.7 million women held professional and technical jobs; another 1.6 million worked as nonfarm managers and administrators. Many others held supervisory jobs at all levels in offices and factories.

Studies show that many factors must be considered when seeking the causes of juvenile delinquency. Whether or not a mother is employed does not appear to be a determining factor.



The Myth

(continued),

Men don't like to work for women supervisors.

The Reality

These studies indicate that it is the quality of a mother's care rather than the time consumed in such care which is of major significance.

Most men who complain about women supervisors have never worked for a woman.

In one study where at least three-fourths of oth the male and female respondents (all executives) had worked with women managers, their evaluation of women in management was favorable. On the other hand, 'the study showed a traditional/ cultural bias among those who reacted unfavorably to women as managers.

In another survey in which 41 percent of the reporting firms indicated that they hired women executives, none rated their performance as unsatisfactory; 50 percent rated them adequate; 42 percent rated them the same as their predecessors; and 8 percent rated them better than their predecessors.

From: United States Department of Labor
Employment Standards Administration
Women's Bureau
Washington, D. C.

FACTS ON WOMEN WORKERS

- . Nine out of ten girls will work at some time in their lives.
- A majority of women work because of economic need. About three-fifths of all women workers are single, widowed, divorced, or separated, or have husbands whose earnings are less than \$7,000 a year.
- . More than 35 million women are in the labor force.
- The number of working mothers (women with children under 18) has increased about ninefold since 1940. They now number 13.0 million, an increase of 3.7 million in the last decade.
- Women workers a concentrated in low-paying dead end jobs. As a result, the average woman worker earns less than three-fifths of what a man does, even when both work full time year round.
- . Unemployment was lowest for white adult males (2.9 percent) and highest for minority reenage girls (34.5 percent) in 1973.

Among all families, about 1 out of 8 is headed by a woman; almost 3 out of 10 black families are headed by women. Of all women workers, 1 out of 10 is a family head; 1 out of 5 minority women workers is a family head.

- Among all poor families, more than 2 out of 5 are headed by women, almost 2 out of 3 poor black families are headed by women.
- . It is frequently the wife's earnings which raise a family out of poverty. In husband-wife families 11 percent have incomes below \$4,000 if the wife does not work; 3 percent, when she does work.
- The average woman worker is slightly better educated than the average man worker. Women 'nave completed a median of 12.5 years of schooling; the median for men is 12.4 years.
- . Women are 77 percent of all clerical workers but only 5 percent of all craft workers.
- Fully employed women high school readuates (with no college) have less income on the average than fully employed men who have not completed elementary school.

From: United States Department of Labor Employment Standards Administration Women's Bureau Washington, D. C.



SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS FOR COUNSELORS

- . Use career materials which do not track boys, girls, or minority group students into specified directions.
- . Recommend courses on bases other than those of a student's race and/or sex.
- . Assist girls in becoming aware of the fact that even though they wish to be a wife and mother, they may also desire and need a career as well, and that the dual role of career woman and homemaker can be compatible.
- Utilize in the elementary school, with the cooperation of counselor and teachers, a variety of adults who can serve as role models in order that boys and girls meet competent females and males filling a variety of jobs. Remember to include successful professional women.
- Arrange for brainstorming sessions with teachers and interested parents, expecially in localities in which girls tend to stop their education after high school, for the purpose of exploring methods of raising career aspirations.
- Encourage mini-courses or enrichment courses in women's studies. Include such topics as: the role of women in history and how that role is changing; Lontributions that women have made in all areas; portrayal of women in literature; current feminist literature (examples: THE DIALECTIC OF SEX, by Shulamith Firestone, THE FEMALE LUNUCH, by Germaine Greer; OUR BODIES, OURSELVES, by the Beston Women's Collective; THE BELL JAR, by Sylvia Plath; BORN FEMALE, by Caroline Bird; and others).
- Use career interest inventories which are not sex biased. (See the National Institute of Education's Guidelines for the Assessment of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Inventories.



SELECTED REFERENCES

Bem, Sandra L. and Bem, Daryl J. TRAINING THE WOMAN TO KNOW HER PLACE: THE SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS OF WOMEN IN THE WORLD OF WORK. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Education, 1973. (ED 082 098)

Hoffer, William. "Career Conditioning for the New Woman," SCHOOL MANAGE-MENT 17:34-36, March 1973.

Horner, Matina. "Fail: Bright Women," PSYCHOLOGY TODAY 3:36-38+, November 1969.

Koontz, Elizabeth Duncan. "A New Look at Education for Girls," CONTEM-PORARY EDUCATION 43:195-197, February 1972.

Mapp, Patricia. WOMEN IN APPRENTICESHIP--WHY NOT? Madison, Wisconsin: State Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations, 1973. (ED 086 880)

Schlossberg, Nancy K. "A Framework for Counseling Women," PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL 51:137-143, October 1972.

Tiedt, Iris M. "Realistic Counseling for High School Girls," THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR 19:354-356, May 1972.

United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. National Institute of Education. GUITALINES FOR ASSESSMENT OF SEX BIAS AND SEX FAIRNESS IN CAREER INTEREST INVENTORIES. Washington, D. C.: The Institute, 1974.

United States Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. CHANGING PATTERNS OF WOMEN'S LIVES. Washington, D. C.: The Bureau, 1973.

United States Office of Education. WOMEN IN THE WORLD OF WORK, Washington, D. C.: The Office, 1973.

Vetter, Louise and Sethney, Barbara J. WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE; PLANNING AHEAD FOR THE WORLD OF WORK. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1972.

~

*

PART II

SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS AND EDUCATIONAL EMPLOYEES

PART II

STATUS OF WOMEN IN EDUCATION

-Highlights-

Section A. Womer on School Boards

- . Approximately 12 percent of the local school board members in the United States and 14.5 percent of the board members in North Carolina are women.
- . The talents and qualifications of female board members are generally equal or superior to those of males.
- . An "informal quota system" might limit the number of female board members.

Section B. Professional Employees in Local Public Schools

- . Most professional public school employees, in the nation and in North Carolina, are Caucasian.
- . Most teachers, in the nation and in North Carolina, are women.
- Most school administrators, in the nation and in North Carolina, are men.
- . Men, for the most part, have higher educational degrees than do women.
- . Women, in general, have more school experience than do men.
- . A larger proportion of men than women are certified for positions higher than the ones in which they are presently employed.

Section C. Employees in the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction

- . Most male and female employees in the State Agency are Caucasian.
- Approximately six of every ten women employed by the State Agency are secretaries or clerk.
- App. Aimately 86 percent of the administrators in the State Agency are men.



- . Men in the State Agency, for the most part, have higher educational degrees than do women.
- . Men in the State Agency generally earn higher salaries than do women.

Section D. Possible Reasons for Few Women in Administrative Positions

. Do Women Have the Qualifications?

Fewer women than men have the needed educational qualifications for administrative positions, reflecting the fact that many women in the general population are discouraged from higher education and that many women in the education profession believe that advanced degrees do not lead to advanced positions.

In terms of school experience, women are more qualified for administrative positions than are men.

In terms of performance as school administrators, women do as well as men or better than men.

. Do Women Have the Ambition?

In terms of interest in administrative positions, fewer women than men indicate preferences for such positions, reflecting societal discouragement of female achievement and the perpetuation of conflicting sex roles.

. Are Women Discriminated Against'

Many women are discriminated against in administrative hifing, including those who have the desire and the qualifications for such jobs as well as those who do not.





SECTION A

WOMEN ON SCHOOL BOARDS

Women Who Are Serving on School Boards

Findings of the National School Boards Association show that women are inadequately represented on school boards. This conclusion was published in April, 1972 after a study commission of the Association discovered that only 11.9 percent of our nation's local school board members were women. In fact, approximately 39 percent of these local boards have no women members; 34 percent have one female member; and 7 percent have more than two females on their boards.

Available data indicate that North Carolina is performing somewhat above the national average, since 14.5 percent of its local board members are female. On the other hand, there are few women in board leadership positions as evidenced by the fact that only 15 of the 154 board chairpersons are female.

Throughout the nation there are 665 state school board members. Of this total, 19.3 percent are women. Since its inception, the North Carolina State Board of Education has had four women members, the first member being appointed in 1968. Currently, two women are serving on the State Board, 4

Comparison of Female and Male Board Members

The National School Boards Association Commission found that female school board members have talents and abilities comparable or superior to those of male members. Men and women were found to possess similar educational backgrounds, with both sexes averaging approximately fifteen years of formal education. Only among those with nineteen or more years of formal education did the men greatly exceed the women.

The National School Boards Association study also reported that women bring as much or more relevant experience to their school board service. Approximately 85 percent of the women, compared to 70 percent of the mon, had served on the board of one or more organizations prior to school board service. Forty-one of 100 women board members had previously been employed by a school system, more than three and one-half times the number of men members. ihirty-eight percent of the females had served on a committee appointed by the school board prior to service, while twenty-seven percent of the males had done so.

The Commission noted that, on the average, men and women members were almost identical in their length of residence in the community, their home ownership, and the number of children they had attending the public schools. A slight difference was reported concerning career experience. While the average male was a professional person, the average female board member



was either a professional or a housewife. But those women who were fulltime housewives possessed an amount of formal education and leadership experience comparable to male board members and to employed female school board members.

Qualifications for Being a Female School Board Member

Based on a 1972 AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL survey of women board members in 41 states, Carolyn Mullins, a board woman herself from suburban Chicago, reports that one characteristic about female board members emerges clearly:

> She is a woman who can cope. She can cope with the obligations of a family or career (often both), with an exhausting schedule, and with the trials that plague school board members irrespective of sex. Above all, she can cope with the subtle (and often not so subtle) patronizing she receives, and with the veiled (and likewise not so veiled) hints that she is some kind of unfeminine freak. 5

Based on interviews with eight women board members from various parts of the country, Laura Doing, past President of the Texas Association of School Boards, agrees that "the path upward is a narrow one" and that it takes a "special determination, plenty of physical energy and a deep desire to serve" for a woman to make it as a school board member.6

Both Mullins and Doing agree that family support and cooperation is essential for a woman board member to do an effective job in the boardroom and at home. Mrs. boing believes that it takes an "exceptional sort of man' to be the husband of a female board member, the sert of man who can "shed his ego while his wife moves into the spotlight" and who will stay at home to serve as "homemaker for the children and the household."

Treatment of Females on School Boards

The eight female board members interviewed by Doing reported no sex discrimination by male board members. In fact, a few of those interviewed preferred to work with men on board activities, noting that men frequently had more 'positive ideas." In other comments the women declared;

> We are genuinely admired and respected by our male colleagues, since they are aware of our efforts and of the time we spend in attempting to provide quality education for school children.

There is no room along the way for the tough broad --or the frilly female. The bossy, overbearing woman on the board is resented by her colleagues, men and women alike ... (but) if women want to be effective, they -



shouldn't pull that feminique stuff on male board, members.

I am proud to be a woman; to be a mother; to be a wife; to be a school board member.

At the same time, Carolyn Mullins revealed in her article that many female board members encountered prejudicial attitudes and actions because of their sex. The following excerpts from her study illustrate the types of bias they experience:

I had a terrible time my first three years. The male members failed to take me seriously and simply acted as if I weren't present or part of the board.

They're always polite, but they make me aware that, as a female, my judgment is not considered 100 percent sound.

Our board chairman (male), in appointing committees, never puts a woman in charge. It may or may not be deliberate.

7

Reasons for the Small Number of Female School Board Members

The National School boards Association Commission found that 40 percent of women board members felt that being a woman hurt their opportunities of being selected for board membership while only 12.5 percent believed it helped. Conversely, only 2.2 percent of the women believed that a person's opportunities for selection were hurt by being a male.

Those women who believed that their sex limited their chances for board selection made such comments as:

There had not been a woman serving on the school board before.

My three smallest children are triplets. Many people thought that I had no business seeking public office.

...discouraged by my husband's friends who felt any involvement might hurt his political future.

The National School Boards Association Commission found that an informal "quotalystem" seemed to be responsible for the under-representation of women on school boards. Both women and men board members expressed the belief that a school board should have "a woman." At the same time, many indicated that too many women on the board, or a board having a majority of women, would not be desirable. The report concluded that such a "quota system" tended to limit the number of women on most school boards to one.

Surveying over 500 school superintendents in August, 1974, THE AMERI-CAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL found that a third of them did not desire to have female school board members. Comments by some superintendents included:⁷

Females tend to get upset over trivial details; males treat board business in a more businesslike way. (Michigan)

Males seem not to dialogue over minor issues; they tend to see the overall picture better. (Illinois)

Men understand finance and maintenance problems better than women do. (Texas)

Female board members have more time and seem to want to help administrate the schools rather than see that they are administered. (Missouri)

In my experience, women, more than men, tend to listen to every crackpot idea from malcontents in the district. (Pennsylvania)

Females are more emotional. Unlike men, they tend to make decisions based on feelings rather than facts. (Ohio)

Females are picky. (South Dakota)

I relate better to men--selfish, eh? (Idaho)

These comments seem to highlight stereotyped assumptions about women which, unfortunately, have limited their part ipation on school boards and have deprived the schools of potentially talented leadership.



Footnotes

- 1. WOMEN ON SCHOOL BOARDS. Evanston, Illinois: National School Boards Association, 1974.
- 2. [Conversation with Jim Blackburn, North Carolina School Beards Association, October 1974]
- 3. [Conversation with Wes Apker, National Association of State Boards of Education, 2480 West 26th Street, Suite 215B, Denver, Colorado, 80211, November 1974]
- 4. North Carolina State Board of Education. MINUTES OF MEETINGS. Raleigh, North Carolina: The Board.
 - 5. Mullins, Carolyn. "The Plight of the Boardwoman," AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL 159:27, February 1972.
 - 6. Doing, Laura T. "Nine Winners Tell How They Play the Game," AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL 160:34, March 1973.
 - 7. Mullins, Carolyn, "To Put It Mildly, Many Superintendents Do Not Like o* Want Female School Board Members," AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL 101:29, September 1974.



SECTION B

PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYIES IN LOCAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS

As presented through charts and a narrative outline, Section B compares female and male employees of local school units according to (a) race, (b) position, (c) education, (d) experience, (e) certification levels and subject areas, and (f) marital status.

Section B focuses on professional school employees in North Carolina with additional references to national statistics. Information pertinent to North Carolina was supplied by the Management Information Systems, Controller's Office, North Carolina Department of Education. State information represents those certified persons employed at any time during 1975-74 for whom records are available. The sources and relevant dates for national statistics are provided in the text.

Race by Sex (See Table I)

1. Most teachers of both sexes are Caucasian.

- A. North Carolina
 - . Only about one-fourth of all teachers are non-white, i.e., Black, Indian, or Oriental.
 - . Among minority teachers in the elementary grades, the proportion of males is slightly larger than that of females. The reverse is true at the secondary level.
- B. United States
 - . Only 11.7 percent of all teachers in 1971 were members of minoraty races.
 - A larger proportion of female teachers belong to minority races (14.9 percent) than do males (8.9 percent).

2. Most school administrators are Caucasian,

- 1. North Carolina
 - . Approximately the same proportion of male and female elementary principals (25 percent) are Black, Indian, or Oriental.
 - . Almost nine out of every ten high school principals is a white male.
 - . All four of the female assistant superintendents are white.
 - . All school superintendents are white males.
- is United States
 - . Information is not available at this time,

Position by Sex (See Tables II and III)

1. Most teachers are women, particularly at the kindergarten and elementary levels.



A. North Carolina

- . Eighty-two percent of all teachers are female.
- . Only one kindergarten teacher in 100 is a man.
- . Almost 90 percent of all elementary teachers are women.
- . At the high school level (junior and senior), men comprise about one-third of the teaching staffs.

B. United States

- . In 1973-74, two-thirds of all teachers were women.³
- 2. Nationally, the proportion of male teachers has been steadily increasing for the last 30 years. The National Education Association reports that the percentage of male teachers in the United States increased from 15.4 percent in 1944-45 to 26 percent in 1955-56 to 34 percent in 1973-74.

3. Most school administrators are men.

- A. North Carolina
 - . While 88 percent of elementary teachers are women, only 16 percent of the assistant principals and 11 percent of the principals at that level are women.
 - . At the secondary level, women comprise only 5 percent of the assistant principals and 3 of 507 principals.
 - . At the central office level:

Women comprise 61 percent of the supervisors and ESEA coordinators.

Of 208 assistant or associate superintendents, only 4 are female.

There are no female school superintendents.

B. United States

- In 1972-75, 12 percent of the nation's assistant principals, 14 percent of the principals, and all percent of the superintendents were women.
- . There are two females serving as chief state school officers.

They are in the states of Wisconsin and Montana.

. The proportion of female principals steadily decreased from 55 percent in 1928 to 22 percent in 1968.

Educational Level by Sex (See Table IV)

1. Almost all professional employees of both sexes have received at least a bachelor's degree.

- A. North Carolina
 - Less than I percent of professionals of both sexes lack a bachelor's degree.
 - . Non-degree professionals are most likely found at the elementary level.



B. United States

- . The percentage of non-degree teachers decreased from 15 percent in 1961 to 3 percent in 1971, with the change occurring chiefly among women. 8
- . In 1961, one of every five female teachers lacked a college degree, as compared to one of every 20 males.
- . In 1971, almost all women (97 percent) and almost all men (98 percent) had at least a bachelor's degree.

2. Generally, a larger proportion of males have graduate degrees than defemales in the same job categories.

A. North Carolina

- . Two of every 10 male teachers at the elementary level has a master's degree, almost twice the proportion of females (12 percent).
- . Twenty-four percent of male high school teachers has a master's or higher degree, as compared to 18 percent of the females.
- Among supervisors and ESEA coordinators, the only administrative job category in which women outnumber men, a larger proportion of the women have master's degrees; but a larger proportion of men have 6-year professional and doctorate degrees.
- Among elementary principals, over three-fourths of both sexes have master's degrees and one percent of both sexes have doctorate degrees; however, the proportion of males with 6-year professional degrees is five times that of females (10 percent compared to 2 percent).

B. United States

- . According to a National Education Association survey in 1970-71, approximately four of every ten male teachers had a master's degree, twice the proportion of females. 9
- The National Association of Elementary School Principals estimated in 4969 that 88 percent of the male elementary assistant principals and 81 percent of the female assistant principals had received at least a master's degree. Of these men, 18 percent had earned a doctorate degree as compared to 12 percent of the women. 10
- Among elementary principals studied in 1968, 90.5 percent of the males and 85.6 percent of the females had received a master's or higher degree. 11

School Experience by Sex (See Table V)

(An important factor in considering teaching experience is, the overall growth of the teaching profession during the 1960's. The total number of elementary teachers increased 47 percent over the decade. Approximately 32 percent of the 1971 teachers were filling positions added to the profession during the preceding 10 years. Total school experience in this section includes teaching experience and other experience as a professional educator.)





1. Women generally have more school experience than men.

A. North Carolina

- . Four out of 10 female elementary teachers nave 12 or more years of total school experience, as compared to 3 of 10 males.
- . Among high school teachers, women and men average about the same number of years of school experience.
- . In almost all administrative positions, the proportion of females with 12 or more years of total school experience exceeds the proportion of males with such experience by approximately 10 percent.

B. United States

. In 1970-71, the average teaching experience of female and male teachers was 8 years. 13

Reflecting a significant decrease in the number of female teachers with 20 or more years of experience, the median experience of females decreased from 14 years in 1961 to 8 years in 1971.

The median experience of male teachers increased from 6 1/2 years in 1966 to 8 years in 1971.

- . An increase in the number of male teachers with 10-20 years of experience suggests that men are staying in the teaching profession longer. 14
- . In a 1969 study of elementary assistant principals, women averaged 6 more years of total school experience and one more year of experience as assistant principals than men. 15
- . According to an NEA survey of elementary principals in 1968: 16
 The average woman had three more years of classroom experience than her male counterpart.

Sixty-five percent of the males had less than 20 years of total school experience, while 58 percent of the females had 30 years or more.

. Based on an in-depth study of elementary principals in 1964, Gross, Neal, and Task found that: 17

The average woman had three times more years of elementary experience than the average man.

Thirty-four percent of the men, but only three percent of the women, had never taught in elementary school.

2. Nationally, men are often promoted to administrative positions at an earlier age and sooner after entering the profession than are women.

- A. The NEA study of elementary principals in 1968 found that 67 percent of the males became principal before age 35; 61 percent of the women were between the ages of 35 and 49 when they were appointed principals. 18
- B. The Gross, Neal, and Task study in 1964 reported that four times the proportion of men as women became elementary principals within 10 years after entering the profession.
- 3. According to a 1971 national survey, female teachers were more likely to have broken service than were males.



(Broken service refers to leaving the education profession for more than one year and then returning to the profession. The only available statistics are found in a 1970-71 study of teachers by the NEA.)

- A. About eight of every 10 male teachers had no breaks in service, as compared to about six of every 10 females. 20
- B. Most female teachers break service for homemaking or child-rearing. Twenty-nine percent of all female teachers, accounting for almost two of every 10 teachers in 1971, had broken service for one of these two reasons. 21
- C. The percentage of female teachers who interrupted their careers for marriage or full-time homemaking decreased from 17 percent in 1966 to 10 percent in 1971.22
- D. Most male teachers break service for other employment (usually outside of education), further study, or military service. 23

Certification Level by Sex (See Tables VI and VII) "

- 1. With a few exceptions, professional public school employees in North Carolina hold certificates at least equal to their present positions.
 - A. Approximately one percent of female and male teachers do not hold standard teaching certificates.
 - B. All three of the female high school principal, and 99 percent of the males hold at least a principal's certificate.
 - C. Only one school superintendent does not hold a superintendent's certificate.
 - D. Among elementary principals, however, 12 percent of the females (20 of 165) do not hold at least a principal's certificate, as compared to three percent of the males (36 of 1328).
 - E. Approximately one-fourth of the supervisors and ESEA coordinators of both sexes do not hold supervisor's certificates.
 - F.. Twelve of 504 male assistant or associate superintendents do not hold an assistant or associate superintendent rating. None of the four females lack such a rating.
- 2. Generally, among professional public school employees in North Carolina, a greater proportion of men than women are certified for positions higher than the ones in which they are employed.
 - A. Less than one percent of all female teachers are certified as principals, supervisors, or superintendents; as compared to 5.7 percent of the males.

- B. Sixteen percent of the female assistant principals (12 of 74) are certified as principals, supervisors, or superintendents; as compared to 39 percent of the males (259 of 669).
- C. Of 37,964 women employed in teaching and major administrative positions, only 9 hold superintendent's certificates. Excluding, superintendents, 340 of 11,586 males in these positions hold such certificates.
- D. Among elementary principals, more than two of every 10 women are certified as supervisors or superintendents, over twice the proportion of men.

Marital Status by Sex (See Table VIII)

- 1. Most professional public school employees are married.
 - A. North Carolina
 - . Approximately three-fourths of all female teachers and slightly over one-half of all male teachers are married.
 - . Almost 80 percent of all administrators are married.
 - B. United States
 - . In 1971, seven out of 10 teachers were married, more than four in 10 were married women.²⁴
- 2. In North Carolina, almost half of all male teachers are single.
- 3. Among married teachers in the United States in 1971, a significant proportion did not have full-time working spouses. 25
 - A. Approximately four out of every 10 married female teachers did not have a working husband.
 - B. Approximately 45 percent of the married male teachers had working wives; about three-fourths of these wives were working full-time.
- 4. Among married teachers in the United States in 1970-71, male teachers tend to have more and younger children than female teachers.²⁶



1973-74

*The race of some people in this job category cannot be identified from available records. Such persons comprise less than .5 percent of all persons in the category.'

Position	Total # in	Tot	al Numbe	r in Posi	tion by Ra	.ce	Percentage
and Sex	Position	White	Black	Indian	Oriental	Other	Of Minorit
Kindergarten Teachers*				,			
. Females	1265	961	287	17	0	0	24%
. Males	11	9	2	1	0	U	27%
Elementary Teachers*			1		_		
. Females . Males	29097	22382	6461 .	240	13	1	23%
liigh School Teachers*	3879	2825	975	76	3	0	2 7%
. Females	8244	6600	1596	45	3	0	20%
. Males	4758	3874	824	52	8	0	18%
			02,4				100
Elementary Assistant		-			•		
Principals	1		4 .	1			
. Females	51	40	10	' 1	0	0	22%
. Males	256	188	65	3	0	0	26%
High School Assistant		}		Ì	1.		1
Principals . Females	• 24	11	1.7				F 40
. Males	413	262	13 147	, 0 4	0	0	54% 36%
. Maies	413	202	14/		<u> </u>	0	30 0
Elementary Principals*							,
. Females	165	126	38	1	0	0	24%
, Males	1328	1033	287	8	0	0	22%
High School Principals	•3			1			*
. Females		3	0	0	Ó	0	0
. Males	504	* 441	58	5 ن	0 —	- 0	12%
Supervisors and ESEA		<u>'</u>		 			,
Coordinators					Ī		
. Females	376	309	65	2 2	0	0	18%
. Males	- 240	208	30	2	0	0	13% -
Assistant and Associ- ate Superintendents						İ	
· Females	4	4	0	0	0	0	О
. Males	204	179	, 24	0	0	0	12%
Superintendents	204	1,3		ľ			1
. Females	0	0	0	0	. 0	0	0
. Males	155	155	0	0	. 0	0	0 .
•	1			,			
Total				/-			
Females	39229	304-36	8470	306	16	1	22%
Males	11748	9174	2412	151	11	0	22%
<u>\</u>	**/ 10		4	C:	••		, 220
\ \ \			, .	-			,

TABLE II

SELECTED POSITIONS HELD BY WOMEN IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NORTH CAROLINA

1973-74

Position		Total Number	Number of Women	Percentage of Women
Kindergarten Elementary High School Total		1,282* 33,046* 13,039* 47,367*	1,265 29,097 <u>8,244</u> 38,606	99% 88% 63% 82%
Counselors Elementary High School Total		287* 648 935*	223 473 696	78% 73% 74%
Librarians Elementary High School Total		. 944* 419 1,363*	922 402 1,324	98% \ <u>96%</u> 97%
Assistant Principals Elementary High School Total	<u>i</u>	311* 437 748*	51 24 75	16% 5% 10%
Principals Elementary High School Total	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	1,493 507 2,000	165 3 168	11% ⁵ 1% 8%
Superintendents .	SEA stant .s	616* 208 155 979*	$ \begin{array}{r} 376 \\ 4 \\ \hline 0 \\ \hline 380 \\ \end{array} $. 61% 3% 0 39%

SOURCE: Management Information Systems
- Controller's Office
North Carolina Department of Education



^{*} These totals include persons whose sex is unknown according to available records. These "unknown" employees always represent less than .5 percent of the total.

TABLE III

SELECTED POSITIONS HELD BY WOMEN IN THE PUBLIG SCHOOLS ~ OF NORTH CAROLINA AND THE UNITED STATES

Percentages of Women in Selected Positions

82%

80%

₹99

70%

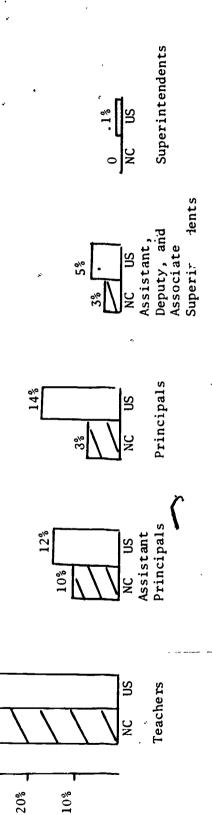
%09

50%

40%

30%

96.



The figures for North Carolina represent 1973-74 and were gathered by the Management Information Systems of the Controller's Office in the North Carolina Department of Education. SOURCES:

Division of the National Education Association, "Twenty-Sixth Biennial Salary and Staff Survey of Public School Professional Personnel." The figures for the United States represent 1972-73 and were gathered by the Research



100%

%06

TABLE IV

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL BY SEX OF SELECTED EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NORTH CAROLINA 1973-74

	Tot al	Number of	Hi	Highest Education Level	ion Level	(based on available	e records)
Position	Number	Available Records	Less than Bachelors	Bachelors	Masters		
Elementary Teachers							
. Females	29,097	17,051	%6.	87%	12%	.04%	.04%
. Males	3,882	2,751	%6.	, 79%	20%	0%	1 C
High School Teachers)		·
. Females	8,245	5,000	.3%	81%	1.8%	% X	0.1%
. Males	4,759	3,201	%5%	. 74%	24%	. %	· ·
Elementary Assistant Principals							0 .
. Females	50	24	0	62%	38%	C	c
. Males	256	167	%9	. 42%	44%	% V	0 9
High School Assistant Principals)))			•
. remales	24	17	0	20%	71%	c	c
. Males	413	277	0	36%	27%		o 4
Elementary Principals					, ,		
. Females	165	93	%	17%	78%	26	ò.
. Males	1,328	929	0%	, % 	7 000	900	0 7
4 High School Principals	,	•	•		0	0.01	√0
Females .	3	33	0	33%	3.3%	c	. 62.2
. Males	504	289	0	9 4	% % % ,	1 %	
Supervisors and ESEA Coordinators							0.7
. Females	376	232	9%	18%	76%	o/ U	9
. Males	240	150	0		7 %		0 00
Assistant and Associate			, ,			0,0	,° O
* Superintendents	_	_	<u>,</u>	-			
. Females	4	7	, C	c	750	6	,
. Males	204	134	0 0	%	200	0 2 2 0	0 1
Superintendents	_	· •)	<u> </u>		0.77	971
Females	-0	0	0	0	C		c
. Males	155	88	0	0/0	59%	36	. %00
							202

NOTE: For easier reading, all figures over 1 percent have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage. Therefore, some totals may not equal 100 percent.

TOTAL SCHOOL EXPERIENCE BY SEX OF SELECTED EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NORTH CAROLINA 1973-74

Total school experience means the years an individual has been employed as a professional educator, as indicated by his/her North Carolina certification rating. One year of experience equals (a) one fiscal year of full-time teaching experience, or (b) two fiscal years of part-time teaching experience, or (c) one year of military service under certain conditions, or (d) one fiscal year of experience as a school administrator. In addition to service in North Carolina, service in accredited schools in other states is also accepted.

Position and Sex	Number in	1	Total	Years	of School	Experience*
	Position	0-3	4-7	8-11	12+	Non-Standard**
Elementary Teachers]					
· . Females	29,097	25%	21%	13%	41%	. 8%
. Males	3,882	31%	26%	12%	30%	1%
High School Teachers					1 1	
· Females	8,245	25%	25%	15%	35%	. 7%
. Males	4,759	23%	26%	16%	34%	l %
Elementary Assistant						,
Principals					1 1	
. Females	50	2%	12%	12%	74%	0
. Males	256	8%	23%	17%	52%	0 ,
High School Assistant	1					
Principals	1					
. Females	24	4%	13%,	8%	75%	0
. Males	413	1%	17%	18%	64%	. 2%
Elementary Principals						
. Females	165	1%	7%	8%	84%	0
. Males	1,328	3%	9%	10%	78%	0
High School Principals]			1 1	
. Eemales	.3	0	0	0	100%	0
. Males	504	0	4°0	12%	85%	0
Supervisors and ESEA					\top	
[°] Coordinators						
· Females	376	2%	4%	10%	83%	.5%
. Males	240	2%	10%	12%	75%	. 8%
Assistant or Associate	i			<u> </u>		
² Superintendents						
Females	4	0	()	0	100%	0
. Males	204	.5%	1%	6%	90%	2%
Superintendents					-	
. Females	0	0	0	0	0	· 0
. Males	155	0	0.	12%	88%	0

- * For easier reading, all figures over one percent have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage. Therefore, some totals may not equal 100 percent.
- ** Non-Standard refers to those who have not completed the necessary certification requirements. For these persons, years of total school experience is unknown.



TABLE VI

SELECTED EMPLOYLES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NORTH CAROLINA WHO HAVE CERTIFICATION RATINGS ABOVE AND BELOW THOSE ASSOCIATED WITH THEIR PRESENT JOB POSITIONS 1973-74

Position and Sex	Total Number in	Number Without Standard Certification or Rating	Number Certified for Higher Position
	Position	for Present Position	than Present One
Teachers (Elementary and High School)	4		
. Females	37,342	300 ×	218
. Males	8,645	101	496
		(i.e., those without	(i.e., those with
	·	T certificates)	P, SG, or S certificates)
Assistant Principals			
· Females	74 '	0	12
. Males	669	0	259
٠		(i.e., those without	(i.e., those with
,	•	T certificates)	P', SG, or S certive ficates)
Principals			
. Females	168	20	36
. Males	1,832	41	193
	•	(i.e., those without	(i.e., those with
		P certificates)	SG, or S certifi- cates)
Supervisors and ESEA	ě		
Coordinators	•		
Females	376	94	2
. Males	240	68	31
		(i.e., those without	(i.e., those with
		SG certificates)	S certificates)
Assistant Superin- tendents			
· Females	1	0 '	
· Males	204	12	137
((i.e., those without	•,
		Af or AO ratings)	(i.e., those with S certificates)
uperintendents		•	•
• Females	0	U	A)
. Males	155	1	0 NA
		(i.e., those without	(not applicable sine
,		S certificates)	superintendent is the
			highest certificate

KEY

T = Teacher (all standard teaching certificates)

P = Principal, including advanced certificates

SG = Supervisor, including advanced certificates

AT and AO = Assistant and Associate Superintendent (a rating, not a certificate)

S = Superintendent, including advanced certificates



TABLE VII

SELECTED EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF NORTH CAROLINA WHO HOLD SUPERINTENDENT'S CERTIFICATES. 1973-74'

Position and Sex	Number in Position	Number Who Hold Superintendent's Certificates
Elementary Teachers		
. Females	29,097	~ 0
. Males	3,882	5
High School Teachers		
. Females	8,245	1
. Males	4,759	11
Elementary Assistant	, .	
· Principals		
. Females	. 50	1
. Males	256	, 1
High School Assistant		
Principals	1	
. Females	24	0
. Males	413	3
Elementary Principals		•
. Females	165	4
. Males*	1,328	. 70
High School Principals		_
. Females	3	1
• Males	504	82
Supervisors and ESEA		
Coordinators	•	
. Females	376	2
. Males	. 240	31
Assistant Superintendents		
. Females	4	0
. Males	204	137
Superintendents		
. Females	0	0
. Males	155	154
Total ' *		
. Females	37,964	9
. Mal e s	11,741	494





TABLE VIII

MARITAL STATUS BY SEX OF SELECTED EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC . SCHOOLS OF NORTH CAROLINA 1973-74

Position	Total Number in	Number of Records	Mar	rital om Ava	Status ilable	by Pe Recor	rcentage ds
	Position	Available	S	M	Sep.	D	W
Elementary Teachers	22 24 -				Í		T
. Females	29,097	18,595	24%	74%	.1%	1%	.3%
. Males	3,882	2,700	47%	52%	.1%	.7%	.03%
High School Teachers		<u> </u>	 	1		-	
. Females	8,245	5,,655	26%	72%	.08%	1%	.2%
. Males	4,759	3,137	44%	55%	.06%	.6%	.03%
Elementary Assistant			 -	 -	ļ	 	
Principals		ļ		ļ	}		,
. Females	50	26'	19%	81%	0.	0	0
. Males	256	159	31%	68%	0	1%	0
•		/	J	00.			
High School Assistant	;	4					
Principals ,			j			,	l
. Females	24	15	13%	80%	0	7%	1 0
. Males	413	224	23%	76%	0	1%	.4%
Elementary Principals							
. Females	165	77	17%	83%	0	0	0
. Males	1,328	· 445	17%	82%	0	.4%	.2%
High School Principals							
. Females	3.	3	0	100%	0	0	0
. Males	504	202	7%	93%	o l	0	0
Curamiaana 1 CCCA							
Supervisors and ESEA Coordinators			•		-		
. Females	376	199	16%	040		^	,
. Males	240	` 111	12%	84% 87%	0	0	0 1%
Anniatant on Assess		\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	120	3, 0			10
Assistant or Associate Superintendents							
Females	4	4	0	100%	_ , .	0	
Males	204	90	3%	97%	0	0	0
			י פרט י	377		-0	0
Superintendents	_						
· Females	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.
. Males	ر 155 مر	64	0	100%	0	0	0

^{*} For easier reading, all figures over one percent have been rounded to the nearest whole percentage; as a result, some totals may not equal 100 percent.

S = Single

M = Married

Sep. = Separated

D = Divorced

W = Widowed



Footnotes

- 1. STATUS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHER, 1970-71. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Research Division, 1972.
- 2. Ibid. 🔆 p. 154.
- 3. TOTAL NUMBER OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Research Division, 1974.
- 4. Ibid.
- 5. TWENTY-SIXTH BIENNIAL SALARY AND STAFF SURVEY OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PROFES-SIONAL PERSONNEL, 1972-73 (Research Report 1973-R5). Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, Research Division, 1973.
- 6. REPORT OF THE CCSSO TASK FORCE ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS. Washington, D. C.: Council of Chief State School Officers, 1973.
- 7. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN 1968: A RESEARCH STUDY. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1968.
- 8. STATUS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHER, 1970-71. Op. cit., p. 12.
- 9. Ibid.
- 10. THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALSHIP IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS--1969: A RESEARCH STUDY. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1969, p. 18.
- 11. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN 1968: A RESEARCH STUDY. Op. cit., p. 24.
- 12. STATUS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHER, 1970-71. Op. cit., p. 14.
- 13. Ibid., p. 15-16:
- 14. Ibid., p. 16-17.
- 15. THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALSHIP IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS--1969: A RESEARCH STUDY. Op. cit., p. 18, 20.
- 16. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN 1968. Op. cit., p. 19.
- 17. Gross, Neal and Task, Anne E. MEN AND WOMEN AS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRIN-CIPALS. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University, June 1964, p. 35.
- 18. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN 1968. Op. cit., p. 14.
- 19. Gross and Task, op. cit.
- 20. STATUS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHER, 1970-71. Op. cit., p. 19-20.

- 21. ' <u>Ibid</u>.
- 22. <u>Ibid</u>.

 23. <u>Ibid</u>.
- [%]23.
- 24. <u>Ibid</u>., p. 63-64.
- 25. Ibid.
- <u>Ibid</u>., _P. 66-68. 26.

SECTION C

EMILOYEES IN THE NORTH CAROLINA DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC, INSTRUCTION

As presented through charts and narrative outline, Section C compares female and male employees in the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction according to (a) race, (b) position, (c) education, (d) career longevity, and (e) salary. The number of female and male consultants in selected State Department of Public Instruction divisions is also included.

The information was provided by Management Information Systems, Controller's Office, North Carolina Department of Education, and represents those persons employed during 1973-74 for whom records are available.

Race and Sex of Employees in the State Agency

			Race by Sex				
_	Total	White		Black ,		<u>Indian</u>	
Sex	Number by Sex	Number	Percentage of Total	Number	Percentage of Total	Number	Percentage of Total
Females	285	246	86.3%	37	12.9%	2	. 8%
Males	229	,201	87.8%	26	11.5%	2 .	.7%
Total	514 -	447	87.0%	63	12.2%	4	.8%

- . The State Superintendent is a Caucasian male.
- . All seven of the Assistant State Superintendents are male; five are Caucasian and two are Black.
- . Two of the six Deputy Assistant State Superintendents are female; one is Black and one is Caucasian. Among the males in this position, three are Caucasian and one is Black.*
- Among 24 Division Directors, 22 are Caucasian males; one is a Black male; and one is a Black female.*
- . All five of the Regional Service Center Directors are Caucasian males.
 - * Some employees hold the title of both Deputy Assistant State Superintendent and Division Director. These employees have been counted as Deputy Assistant State Superintendents.

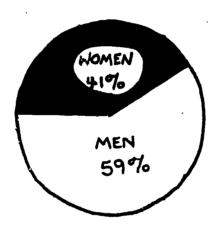








Approximately nine out of every ten State Department of Public Instruction administrators are men.



Approximately four of every ten State Department of Public Instruction consultants are women.



Approximately six of every ten women employed by State Department of Public Instruction are secretaries or clerks.



Position by Sex of Employees in the State Agency 1973-74

			•
	Professional Workers		
		Number	Number
	Job Types*	of Women	of Men
1.	State Superintendent of Public Instruction	0	1
2.		0	7
	Assistant State Superintendents	2	ί, Δ
3.	Deputy Assistant State Superintendents	<u>.</u>	4
4.	Division Directors	ı	23
5.	Deputy, Assistant, or Associate Division Directors	4 ~	17
6.	Regional Service Center Directors	0 ;′	5
7.	Chief Consultants	6	8
8.	All Other Administrators	0	16
9.	Consultants	. 73	105
10.	Specialists (information, training, media, Ruman		
	relations)	13	6
11.	Assistants (special, administrative, social research	ch) 6	2
12.	Adult/Vocational Education Instructors	0	13
13.	Auditors and Accountants	, ~, 0	4
14.	Analysts (personnel, statistical, manpower)	3	2
15.	Consulting Engineers, Architects, Psychologists	0	8
	e C		
	Total Number of Professional Workers	108	22 <u>1</u>
	ć g	•	
	Non-Professional Workers	•	
	Non-Trotessional Workers		

	Non-Professional Workers		
	Job Types*	Number of Women	Number of Men
16.	Secretaries and Clerks	187	5
17.	Photographers, Artists-Illustrators, Editorial Assistants	5	. 3
18.	Technicians and Draftsmen	0	4
19.	Machine Operators and Supervisor	0	6
20.	Housekeeping Assistants and Watchmen	0	2
	Total Number of Non-Professional Workers	192	20
	Total Workers	s 300	241

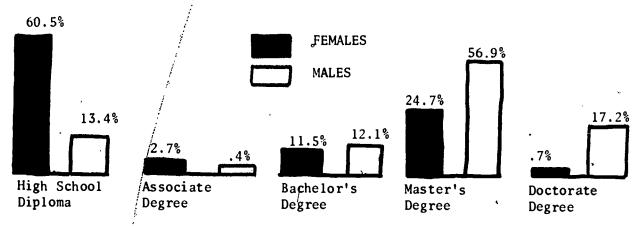
*NOTE: Employees were classified by job type according to the following method:

- All persons given administrative job titles (#1-7) (a) in the 1973-74 Education Directory were counted as such. In instances in which one person had two such titles in the directory, the person was given the highest ranking title (designated in this chart by the lowest numbers).
- (b) Regional Service Center Directors, employed since the
- publication of the Education Directory, were added.

 (c) The remaining employees were classified according to their official state job titles.

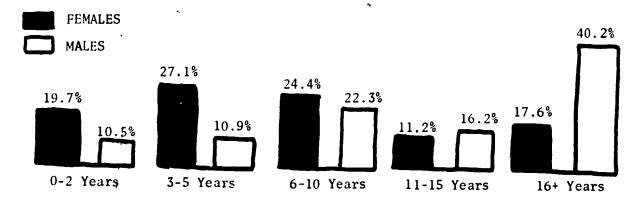


Highest Educational Levels by Sex of Employees in the State Agency 1973-74



- 1. Six of every ten female employees have less than a college degree, as compared to slightly over one of every ten males.
- 2. As much as 88 percent of the males, but only 25 percent of the females, have a master's degree or higher.
- 3. Less than one percent of the females have a doctorate degree, as compared to 17 percent of the males.

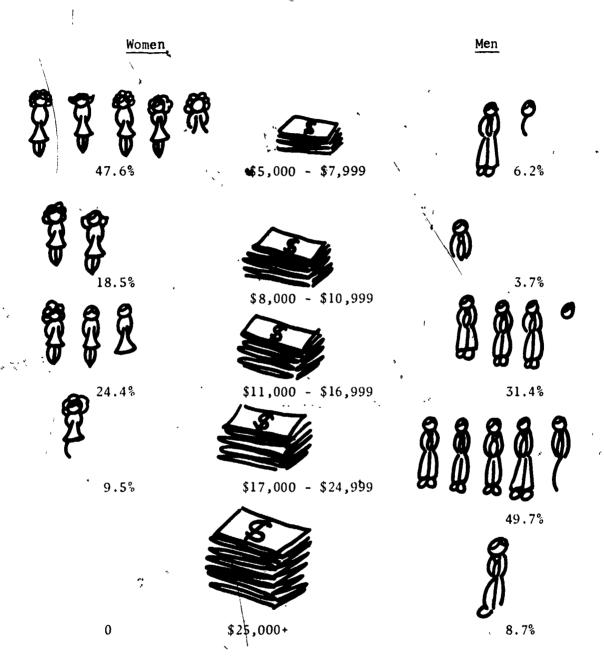
Years of State Service by Sex of Employees in the State Agency 1973-74*



- 1. Over half of the males (56 percent) have worked for the Department over ten years.
- Almost half of the females (47 percent) have worked for the Department less than six years.
 - * State service includes employment in a local school unit and/or in a part of State government.



Salaries by Sex of Employees in the State Agency 1973-74



- 1. Almost half of the women (48 percent) earn less than \$8,000 per year.
- 2. Almost six of every ten males earn over \$17,000 per year, six times the proportion of females. .
- 3. No women and 8.7 percent of the men earn over \$25,000 per year.

Female and Male Consultants in Selected Divisions of the State Agency

By providing specialized information and services, consultants in the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction try to help local school units improve their educational services for students. The following information has been selected in order to compare the sex of consultants in certain areas to relevant facts concerning each area.

Division	Number of Female	Consultants Male	Relevant Facts
Kindergarten and Early Childhood Education	3	3	Ninety-nine percent of North Carolina's kindergarten teachers are female.
Reading	, 4	0	At the elementary level and often beyond, boys generally show lower reading achievement than dogirls. ²
Mathematics /	1	·	Following elementary school, girls often show lower math achievement than do boys. 3
Science	0	3	Women comprise only 12 percent of America's scientists. ⁴
Social Studies	2	3	More male high school teachers are certified in social studies than in any other subject.
Cultural Arts Art Music	1 2	2 2 2	More male high school teachers are certified in music or art than are females.
Occupational Education Agriculture Business and Office Education	0	5	Nine out of 10 students enrolled in North Caro- lina's four basic home
Distributive Educa- tron	1	, O , 4	economics courses (in- cluding boys' home econo- mics) are girls.



	Number of Consultants		•	
Division	Femæle	Male	Relevant Facts	
Trade and Industrial	•		Nine out of 10 stu-	
. Education	. 0 `	8	dents enrolled in	
Consumer Homemaking Occupational Explo-	7	0	agriculture courses are boys.	
ration		5	Girls comprise less than 10 percent of the enrollment in such courses as auto mechanics, brick-laying, cabinetmaking, plumbing, radio and T.V. repair, machine shop, and welding.	
Health, Safety, and			Only one high school,	
Physical Education	1	6	in North Carolina has a female athletic	
Athletics	Q	2	director. 10	
School Food Services		0	At least 98 percent of the school food service workers in North Carolina are female.	

Footnotes

- 1. [Computer Printout, Management Information Systems, Controller's Office, North Carolina Department of Education, 1973-74.]
- 2. See section of this source book entitled "Intellectual Abilities and School Achievement."
- 3. Ibid.
- 4. THAT FIFTY-ONE PERCENT. New York, New York: Ford Foundation, April 1974, p. 17.
- 5. See Table VIII, Part II of this section.
- 6. Ibid.
- 7. [Computer Printout, Management Information Systems, Controller's Office, North Carolina Department of Education, 1973-74.]
- 8. Ibid.
- 9. Ibid.



- 10. [Conversations with Mr. Charles Adams, Executive Secretary, North Carolina High School Athletic Association, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, November 15, 1974; and Mr. W. C. Clary, Executive Secretary, Western North Carolina High School Activities Association, Winston-Salem, North Carolina, November 15, 1974.]
- 11. [Conversation with Mr. Ralph Eaton, Director, School Food Services Division, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina, November 15, 1974.]

SECTION D

POSSIBLE REASONS FOR FEW WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

"In order for a woman to be promoted she needs to look like a girl, act like a lady, think like a man, and work like a dog."

Author Unknown

As Section B indicates, relatively few women are serving as public school administrators. It is imperative to identify the reasons for this situation and find better ways of tapping the great reservoir of female talent. Are men better qualified for administrative positions? Do women want to be promoted? Are qualified, ambitious women discriminated against in their attempts to advance in the public schools? Section D will explore these and other questions.

Qualifications of Women for Administrative Positions

1. Do Women Have the Educational Qualifications?

Generally, among public school employees in North Carolina and throughout the nation, men have better educational qualifications for administrative positions than do women. More men tend to have graduate degrees and the academic requirements certifying them for higher positions.

This trend reflects that of the general population. Women earned 46 percent of the bachelor's degrees, 44 percent of the master's degrees, and 20 percent of the doctorate degrees conferred by North Carolina schools in 1972-73. These women earned almost three-fourths of the bachelor's degrees in education, about one-half of the master's in education, but only one-fourth of the doctorate degrees in education. \(\frac{1}{2} \)

Inside and outside the education profession, why do fewer women than men earn bachelors and graduate degrees, particularly doctorate degrees? Based on a synthesis of four major studies involving over 300,000 college students, Patricia Cross provides at least a partial answer to this question:

- . When ability is questionable, more men than women in the lowest 40 percent of ability attend college.
- . When funds are limited, high ability males from low income families are more likely to attend college than comparable females.
- . Most students of both sexes stated that attending college was twice as important for a man as for a woman.
- . A large proportion of college students indicated that husband-hunting is the most important reason for a girl to attend college.
- . While about half the women expected to work for most of their lives, a majority expected family to be their greatest satisfaction in life.
- . Women tended to view homemaking and family as increasingly more important and further education as less important as they progressed through school.



- A smaller proportion of women than men considered themselves competitive and considered financial or leadership success as important life objectives.
- . Women were less likely to feel confident in their ability to do college work. They tended to rate themselves lower than men in such specific areas as mathematics, mechanical ability, and athletics and in such general areas as leadership, popularity, and intellectual ability.

A 1973 survey of female and male college dropouts by Judith Albino illustrates that low self-confidence and the pursuit of the feminine role often pushes women out of school. When asked why they dropped out, men generally cited physical problems, while the women reported psychological problems such as loneliness, lack of confidence, or problems with interpersonal relationships. It is very important to note that a much larger proportion of female dropouts had higher grade point averages than did the male dropouts. Though the women tended to perform better in college than men, they tended to evaluate their performance lower. This underrating, Albino surmises, may occur because women see academic success as "incompatible with the traditional female role... It appears, therefore, that men often drop out fearing failure in college, while women drop out fearful of success."

In a 1973 report, Lucy Sells presented the findings of three studies of graduate school dropouts:

- . In a study of doctorate students entering graduate school between 1950-53, 65 percent of the men, but only 45 percent of the women had earned their doctorate by 1962. (Tucker, Gottlieb, and Dease)
- . Woodrow Wilson Fellows entering graduate school between 1958-1963 were surveyed 6-8 years later; 44 percent of the men and 64 percent of the women had dropped out without earning their degrees. (Sells, 1973)
- . Among doctorate students entering the University of California at Berkeley in 1962, 22 percent of the men and 42 percent of the women had dropped out by the fourth year.⁴

Sells and others conducted a series of group sessions with women to define the problems facing female graduate students. Sells found that, while women generally enter graduate school with better records, they often sense growing demoralization, a decline in their sense of competence, self-confidence, and self-esteem. Accounting for at least part of these feelings, the women reported seeing their male counterparts accepted by professors as apprentices and junior colleagues, while they, as women, felt shut out from such relationships.

In summary, there seem to be several powerful reasons why fewer women than men earn bachelor's and graduate degrees:

- . Women in the lowest 40 percent of ability and from low income families are less likely to enter college than comparable men.
- . There is a general belief among both sexes that it is more important for a boy to attend college than a girl.



- . Reflecting societal conditioning, many college women are more concerned with finding a husband and raising a family than with achieving academic success or furthering their education.
- . Many women lack self-confidence in specific skill areas and in general qualities, such as leadership or intellectual ability.
- . Some professors show favoritism in their treatment of male students.

Of course, many women who want to continue their education after marriage may also be limited by low family incomes, homemaking and child-rearing responsibilities, or the resistance of their husbands.

Finally, realizing these problems and the long tradition of male dominance in public school administration, many women in the education profession have come to believe that no amount of effort will improve their opportunities for promotion. Charlene Dale, junior high school principal in Charlotte, North Carolina, describes this feeling by saying:

Growing numbers of women in education, as in other fields, are becoming increasingly aware that the employment options open to females are extremely limited and that if you happen to be born female you have little control over your professional life. The American dream is perceived as having a "for men only" sign hovering over it.

Therefore, seeing little opportunity for job advancement, many women decide that obtaining advanced academic credentials is not worth the effort.

2. Do Women Have Enough Experience to Qualify for Administrative Positions?

Generally, among public school professionals, women have more total school experience and more classroom teaching experience than their male counterparts (see Part II). Obviously, such experience is a valuable qualification for an administrative position.

Particularly disturbing are studies showing that men advance to administrative positions at an earlier age and with less professional experience than do women. Not only do such practices suggest discrimination against women in the short run, they also tend to reduce a woman's opportunities of being promoted to a higher position after her initial appointment. For example, consider the following profile of the "average" school superintendent in 1969-70, as prepared by the American Association of School Administrators:

The typical superintendent is male and begins his classroom teaching at age 23 at the secondary level. By age 29, he usually receives his first appointment to a supervisory or administrative position. Receiving his master's degree by age 31-32, the average candidate is appointed superintendent by age 36.

According to the study, the probability of becoming superintendent between the ages of 40-50 is one in three; the chances after age 50 are four in 100.



On the other hand, most female administrators receive their first administrative appointment after age 35; e.g., among elementary assistant principals, the average female was 49 years old, the average male was 40; among elementary principals, 61 percent of the women were appointed after age 35, 67 percent of the men were appointed after age 35. Obviously, by the time most women are appointed to an intermediate administrative post and serve even a few years, they are too old to have a reasonable chance of promotion to superintendent.

3. Do Women Have the Leadership Skills Needed for Administrative Roles?

The available leadership studies of school administrators show that women perform equal to men or better than men. For example, in 1961, John Hemphill and others studied 232 elementary principals in 11 different areas of the country and found:

The evidence appears to favor women if the job of the principal is conceived in a way that values working with teachers and outsiders; being concerned with objectives of teaching, pupil participation, and the evaluation of learning; having knowledge of teaching methods and techniques; and gaining positive reactions from teachers and superiors.

While concluding that women tend to allow followers less freedom for personal initiative, Helen Morsink's 1970 study of 30 secondary principals in Michigan also found that:

...if the appropriate secondary school principal is defined as one who more often speaks and acts be representative of the group, is persuasive in argument, emphasizes production, maintains cordial relations with superiors, influences them, and strives for higher status, the findings favor women as secondary school principals.

As described in his 1969 article entitled "Who Shall Be Principal--A Man or a Woman?," John Hoyle asked 216 teachers to rate 21 male principals and 98 teachers to rate nine female principals. Women were rated higher in terms of noticing potential problem situations and reviewing results of actions taken. He did not find significant sex differences in other measures of performance. 11

Finally, from an extensive study of elementary school principals in 1968, Gross, Neal, and Task concluded that:

. Women put more stress on the individual differences among students, delinquency-prone pupils, and the social and emotional development of each child.

. Males and females showed equal emphasis on the academic achievement of students and the school's ability to maintain discipline.



- . While women exerted greater control over the teachers' professional activities, they associated more frequently with teachers outside of school.
- : Staff morale was not associated with the sex of the principal.
- . Teacher and pupil learning was higher on the average in schools administered by women. 12

In addition, studies by Wiles and Grobman, Hines and Grobman, Barter, and Newell agree with the conclusion that female administrators perform as well and sometimes better than male administrators, and that sex should not be a consideration in selecting those for administrative positions. 13

Desire of Women for Administrative Positions

On the basis of available studies, women tend to indicate less interest in administrative advancement than men. For example, among elementary assistmant principals surveyed in 1969, 40 percent of the females but only eight percent of the males considered the position as their final goal. Of those desiring promotion, about two-thirds of both sexes picked the elementary principalship. On the other hand, ten males in 100 wanted to become superintendent, as compared to one of every 100 women. 14

Likewise, among elementary principals surveyed in 1968, half of the men and 79 percent of the women said they did not want further advancement. Of the remainder, women were more likely to want a supervisory position in the central office, while men were more likely to want the superintendent's job. 15

The Gross, Neal, and Task study of elementary principals in 1964 reported that four out of five women expressed no interest in becoming assistant or deputy superintendent of a large city school system, as compared to two of five men. Nine out of ten women, as compared to six of ten men, rejected the idea of becoming a school superintendent in either a large or small school system. 16

Today, various women's organizations testify that more and more women want administrative positions in education. For example, organizations of professional educators, such as the Modern Language Association; the National Association of School Personnel Administrators; the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors; the National Vocational Guidance Association; and the National Education Association have formed task forces to promote the case for more women administrators.

In addition, groups such as the National Organization of Women, the Emma Willard Task Force, and the Women's Equity Action League are exposing discriminatory practices and echoing the desire and right of women to fill administrative positions in the schools. The National Council of Administrative Women in Education, with a state affiliate in North Carolina, is particularly interested in identifying qualified women who want such positions and in supporting their efforts.

116



In the Council's latest publication, WANTED--MORE WOMEN, Dr. Charlene Dale, a junior high school principal in Charlotte, North Carolina, explains that because many women feel there is "no room at the top," their ambition and aspirations are "quietly and permanently depressed." Those who maintain their professional ambition find a frustrating conflict between harmonizing the image of a woman with that of a leader; e.g.:

A woman is seeking advancement. If she is passive and pleasant, it is said that she does not have the dynamic thrust necessary for leadership. If she is assertive and persistent in eliciting the best from a staff, it is said she is too demanding and hard on the employees. Either way, she is criticized. 17

In their article, "Female Identity and Occupational Commitment," Cowan and Moore elaborate:

...a basic conflict occurs between behaviors that are expected of a woman, and behaviors that are expected of a person in a decision-making, leadership role. That is, how can a woman be quiet, tactful, gentle, and have a strong need for security, and at the same time be autonomous, independent, self-confident, achieving, active, and decisive? Women who hold such leadership positions often speak of the "tight rope walking" they must do to succeed on the job while at the same time not deviating too markedly from behaviors which others expect of her as a woman." I 8

Faced with such a conflict, many women decide to be passive and "play the game." Based on her extensive studies of women with doctorate degrees, Alice S. Rossi quotes several women who have learned how to play it:

Even the most insecure type of male will not resent your achievements if you are quiet about them.

A woman must be competent in ner present position, but she must not aspire to a higher one. If it is offered to her, she must show surprise and gratitude.

I used to aim much higher than I do now, but I have learned the game and try to accept the level at which women seem to be kept, without feeling too bitter about it all. 19

In addition to the conflict between being a "woman" and being a "leader," many women face the conflict between being a "wife/mother" and a person with a career. According to many sources, the typical woman has learned throughout most of her life that her primary responsibilities are to serve as a wife and mother. As a result, many women feel guilty about splitting their time between family and career. If a woman's husband will not or cannot share equal responsibility for child-rearing and homemaking, she may find it impossible to undertake a demanding administrative position. If her husband objects to her career ambitions, she may never try.



For these and other reasons, many women who may have wanted administrative positions at one time or who want them now may not be voicing or pursuing these desires.

Discrimination in Promotion Practices

In considering whether women are discriminated against in acquiring administrative positions, two inter-related questions should be examined: (1) Are qualified women who want such positions being discriminated against? (2) Do the schools discourage female employees from desiring such positions and/or preparing for them?

In answer to the first question, studies and personal testimony indicate that some qualified, ambitious women are denied administrative jobs because of their sex. A 1972 study of academic employment practices by Clifford and Walster found that "unless a woman is of unusual ability and/ or acknowledged success, she must expect to be treated inequitably."20 Likewise, after an examination of college hiring practices. Lawrence A. Simpson reported in 1968:

> Hiring officials do discriminate against women and strongly favor the selection of male faculty. Where qualifications of men and women are equal, substantially more men were chosen,... In a choice between a superior woman and a less qualified man, the employers selected a significant number of women, indicating they would hire a highly qualified woman if no equally qualified man was available.

In the National Council of Administrative Women in Education booklet entitled WANTED--MORE WOMEN, Dr. Charlene Dale lists some of the traditional assumptions limiting the promotion of women into school administration:

- . A woman's prime duty is to serve man.
- . Men are natural leaders.
- . Women are not professional; i.e., not capable of arranging or adjusting their personal affairs as required. . Women cannot travel or relocate their homes. 22

Other prejudices against female administrators include the belief that a married woman "doesn't need the money as much as a man," and that a woman with school-age children has "no business" with such a demanding, time-consuming job. Considering these and other assumptions about the abilities and roles of women, it is clear that many women are denied administrative jobs in public schools not because they are not qualified or do not want the positions, but because they are female.

A more subtle and even more devastating form of sex discrimination discourages women from wanting or preparing for administrative positions. In various ways, many women learn that they need not apply. For example, consider the following excerpt from an actual public school recruiting poster:



Are you a female elementary school teacher searching for more effective ways to reach children? Join us as we experiment with team teaching and ungraded classes. Are you a male elementary school teacher with career goals in administration? Join us as we seek to develop educational leadership for the future. 23

Studies on sex differences in achievement and intellectual ability show that girls learn at an early age that they should be followers, not leaders; that they should aspire for certain goals and not others; that they can expect certain rewards and not others. According to these sources, the public schools perpetuate such conditioning and convince female students and employees that their ambitions for leadership will end in frustration and that their qualifications will be ignored.

One cannot know how many women have stifled their aspirations and their efforts because of sex discrimination; but the increasing need for better school leadership is apparent. Better schools demand that females be encouraged to develop their talents, nourish their ambitions, and contribute their services at the administrative level.

Footnotes

- 1. STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN NORTH CAROLINA, 1973-74. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina, 1974, pp. 72-80.
- Cross, Patricia K. COLLEGE WOMEN: A RESEARCH DESCRIPTION. Washington,
 D. C.: National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 1968.
- 3. Albino, Judith E. "Sex Differences on Factor Dimensions Related to Withdrawing from College," Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Meeting, April 15-19, 1973, in New Orleans, Louisiana.
- 4. Sells, Lucy W. "Sex Differences in Graduate School Survival," Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association. New York, New York, August 28, 1973.
- Dale, Charlene T. "Women Are Still Missing Persons in Administrative and Supervisory Jobs," EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP 31:123-127, November 1973.
- 6. THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1971.
- 7. THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: A-RESEARCH STUDY. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1969.
- 8. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN 1968: A RESEARCH STUDY. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1968.



- 9. Hemphill, John. DIMENSIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERFORMANCE. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1961.
- 10. Morsink, Helen M. "Leader Behavior of Men and Women Principals," BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS 54:80-87, September 1970.
- 11. Hoyle, John. "Who Shall Be Principal--A Man or a Woman?" THE NATION-AL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL 48:23, January 1969.
- 12. Gross, Neal and Task, Anne E. MEN AND WOMEN AS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University, 1964.
- 13. Wiles, Kimball and Grobman, Hulda G. "Principals as Leaders," NATION'S SCHOOLS 56:75, October 1955.

Grobman, Hulda and Hines, Vynce A. "What Makes a Good Principal?" BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS 40:5-16, November 1956.

Barter, Alicers. "The Status of Women in School Administration," - EDUCATIONAL HORIZONS 37:72-75, Spring 1959.

Newell, Laura A. A STUDY OF INSTRUCTIONAL AWARENESS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN SELECTED SCHOOL DISTRICTS THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES. (Ph.D. Dissertation) Auburn, Alabama: Auburn University, 1960.

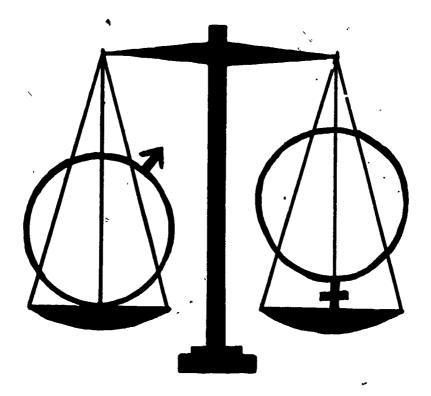
- 14. THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: A RESEARCH STUDY. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1969.
- 15. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL IN 1968: A RESEARCH STUDY. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1968.
- 16. Gross, Neal and Task, Anne E. MEN AND WOMEN AS ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University, 1964.
- 17. WANTED--MORE WOMEN. Washington, D. C.: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1972, p. 3.
- 19. Cowan, Gloria and Moore, Loretta. FEMALE IDENTITY AND OCCUPATIONAL COMMITMENT. Detroit, Michigan: Wayne State University, April 1971.
- 19. Rossi, Alice S. "Job Discrimination and What Women Can Do About It," ATLANTIC 225:100+, March 1970.
- 20. Clifford, Margaret M. and Walster, Elaine. "The Affect of Sex on College Admission, Work Evaluation, and Job Interviews," THE JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL EDUCATION 41:1, Winter 1972.
- 21. Simpson, Lawrence A. SEX DISCRIMINATION IN THE ACADEMIC WORLD: SUM-MARY OF RESEARCH. Washington, D. C.: Business and Professional Women's Foundation 1970.

- 22. WANTED--MORE WOMEN. Washington, D. C.: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1972.
- 23. Jacobs, Carol and Eaton, Cynthia. "Sexism in the Elementary School," TODAY'S EDUCATION 61:20-21, December 1972.

PART III

SUGGESTIONS AND RESOURCES FOR ELIMINATING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN THE SCHOOLS





LEGISLATION PROHIBITING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATION

-Highlights-

Sex discrimination is illegal.

The most significant laws prohibiting sex discrimination in education are these:

- Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972
 Applies to all aspects of all educational programs in all schools and institutions of higher education which receive Federal funds
- Executive Order Number 11246, as amended by Number 11375
 Applies to all educational institutions receiving Federal grants of \$10,000 or more and relates to employment)
- Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964
 Applies to all institutions with fifteen or more employees including school systems and state governments and relates to employment)
- Equal Pay Act of 1963
 Applies to all workers and relates to compensation



LEGISLATION PROHIBITING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATION

Sex discrimination is against the law. Summarized below are the most significant laws and regulations prohibiting sex discrimination in education. These include: (1) Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, (2) Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, (3) Executive Order No. 11246, and (4) the Equal Pay Act of 1963. In addition, there is a brief explanation of the proposed Equal Rights Amendment.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

A new chapter in the history of education was begun in 1972 when Title IX became law. Title IX states, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance..." Since Title IX will affect virtually all public school systems in the country, as well as almost 2,500 institutions of post-secondary education, educators are anxiously awaiting the proposed regulations which will help them implement Title IX. These regulations (or guidelines) are expected to be approved by Congress and the President early in 1975 and will be published in final form in the FEDERAL REGISTER. They will become effective thirty days thereafter. As of the date of this writing, the revised regulations to Title IX have not been released. However, they are expected to be similar to the first edition, which is summarized below:

Coverage: Except for certain exemptions-specified in the regulations, title IX applies to all aspects of all education programs or activities of a school district institution of higher education, or other entity which receives Federal funds for any of those programs.

Military institutions are entirely exempt from Title IX. Practices in schools run by religious organizations are also exempt to the extent compliance would be inconsistent with religious tenets. As specified in the following section, certain types of institutions are also exempt from admissions regulations, but are required to treat all students nondiscriminatorily once they have admitted members of both sexes.

Admissions: The regulations forbid discrimination in recruiting or in admissions policies and practices. This prohibition applies only to vocational, professional, and graduate schools, and to public undergraduate schools (except those few which have been traditionally and continually single sex). It does not apply to pre-schools, elementary and secondary schools (except vocational schools), private undergraduate institutions, and the few public undergraduate schools previously mentioned.

Treatment: All schools covered by Title IX, including those exempted from admissions regulations, must treat their admitted students without discrimination on the basis of sex. Specifically, such treatment includes:



- 1. Both sexes must have equal access to and participation in course offerings and extracurricular activities, including campus organizations and competitive athletics.
 - a) No classes, including physical education, may be offered separately on the basis of sex.
 - (b) An educational institution covered by Title IX can not support or assist any organization, agency, or person which discriminates on the basis of sex.
 - Where selection is based on competitive skill, athletics may be provided through separate teams for males and females or through a single team open to both sexes. Institutions must determine, at leas't annually, in what sports students desire to participate. If separate teams are offered, the institution may not discriminate on the basis of sex in provision of necessary equipment or supplies, or in any other way; but equal aggregate expenditures are not required. The goal of the regulation in the area of competitive athletics is to secure equal opportunity for males and females while allowing schools flexibility in determining how best to provide such opportunity. Where athletic opportunities for one sex have been limited, an institution must make affirmative efforts to inform members of that sex of the availability of equal opportunities and to provide support and training to enable them toparticipate.
- 2. Both sexes must have equal access to benefits, services, and financial aid.
 - (a) Benefits and services include medical and insurance policies and services for students, counseling, and assistance in obtaining employment.
 - (b) Financial aid includes scholarships, loans, grants-in-aid, and work-study programs.
- 3. Both sexes must have equal access to comparable facilities and housing (except that single sex housing is permissable).
 - (a) An institution may not make available to members of one sex locker rooms, toilets, and showers which are not comparable to those provided to members of the other sex.
 - (b) However, the regulation does permit separate housing, toilets, locker rooms, and showers on the basis of sex.

There is no provision that prohibits discrimination in textbooks and other curricular materials. However, the Office of Education will provide assistance to local education agencies in eliminating sex bias from curricula and educational material.

Employment: All employees in all institutions are covered, both full and part-time, except those in military schools, and in religious schools, to the extent compliance would be inconsistent with the controlling religious tenets. Employment coverage under the proposed regulation generally follows the policies of the Lqual Employment Opportunity Commission and the Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance.



Specifically the regulation covers (a) employment criteria, (b) recruitment, (c) compensation, (d) job classification and structure, (e) fringe benefits, (f) marital or parental status, (g) effect of state or local law or other requirements, (h) advertising, (i) pre-employment inquiries, (j) sex as a bona fide occupational qualification.

As to fringe benefits, employers must provide either equal contributions to or equal benefits under pension plans for males and females.

Enforcement Procedure: Should a violation of the statute occur, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will seek voluntary compliance. If these attempts fail, enforcement action may be taken by: (a) administrative proceedings to terminate Federal financial assistance until the institution ceases its discriminatory conduct; or (b) other means authorized by law, including referral to the Justice Department for initiation of court proceedings.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex. It covers all institutions with fifteen or more employees, including state and local government, labor organizations, and school systems.

Specifically, the act prohibits discrimination in the areas of (a) hiring, discharge, layoff, and recall, (b) promotion, (c) training, (d) compensation, and (e) benefits such as health and life insurance coverage, retirement plans, vacation and sick leave, etc.

The act is enforced through the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Executive Order Number 11246, as Amended by Number 11375

This regulation prchibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, national origin, or sex by all educational institutions receiving federal contracts of \$10,000 or more. The term "contract" has been generally interpreted to include grants and loans. The order forbids discrimination in hiring, discharge, wages, benefits, training, and all other areas of employment.

Institutions receiving federal contracts of \$50,000 or more and having fifty or more employees are required to develop written affirmative action plans, including numerical goals and timetables, which will apply to all employees throughout the institutions:

The Office of Federal Contract Compliance, under the United States Department of Labor, is responsible for enforcing this executive order.



Equal Pay Act of 1963

The Equal Pay Act of 1963, as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972, protects all workers, including those in professional, executive, and administrative positions in education, from discrimination in salaries and benefits on the basis of sex. The Act requires that men and women be paid equally for doing comparable work for the same employer, even though the job titles and assignments do not have to be identical. Also, the Act prohibits labor organizations from causing or attempting to cause employers to discriminate on the basis of sex.

The Wage and Hour Division of the Employment Standards Administration of the Department of Labor is responsible for enforcing the Act.

Equal Rights Amendment (ERA)

"Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the . United States or by any state on account of sex."

This brief proposed amendment to the Constitution is designed to assure equality of rights under the law regardless of sex. Because ERA applies equally to both males and females, laws which currently grant privileges and responsibilities to one sex will be extended to include the other sex. For instance, ERA would insure that widowers would be allowed the same Social Security benefits as those received by widows. Alimony and child support would be awarded according to ability to pay. Both sexes would be covered by "protective" labor laws that were originally enacted to protect only women from being exploited. However, in situations in which these laws now restrict female advancement, the legislation would be nullified. Likewise, state laws that punish persons of one sex more severely than persons of the other sex for the same crime would be invalidated. And, any restrictions on the property rights of married women would be abrogated. In short, all types of federal and state legislation that currently discriminates against women or men would be struck down.

Public schools would not be allowed to discriminate on the basis of sex. Moreover, tax-supported schools currently limited to one sex would be required to admit both sexes. Higher admission standards for women would be eliminated as would discrimination in education employment.

ERA is concerned with legal rights and not with social customs or personal relationships between males and females. Which sex pays for an evening out, hails a taxi, or pulls out a chair is irrelevant to equal legal status. Nor would equal legal status conflict with other constitutional guarantees, particularly the right to privacy. Hence ERA would not abolish the use of separate restrooms for each sex or segregation by sex in the armed services, in prisons, or in other public institutions.

Other areas in which ERA would eliminate inequities are Social Security benefits and discriminatory labor laws. In the area of military service, ERA would end the practice of demanding higher qualifications for women than for men in the armed forces, and so open up the possibility of



military job training for women, government housing for families of women serving in the armed forces comparable to that provided for families of men serving, and veterans' benefits to more women. With a volunteer army in effect, the drafting of women is a dead issue now. Under ERA, Congress could draft women (incidentally, it already can) but their chances of serving in combat duty are slim.

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS FOR ELIMINATING SEX DISCRIMINATION IN EDUCATION

In State Departments of Education

- . Agree, with the leadership of chief state school officers, that the hiring of professional women for state administrative positions is an organizational priority.
- Recognize the widespread existence of discrimination against women in public education as a significant problem, and define policies which urge local school districts to establish affirmative action plans consistent with Executive Order 11246, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, and the Equal Pay Act of 1963.
- Analyze alternative means for certifying school administrators, in order to increase the immediate leadership pool of women in education.
- Develop an affirmative action plan for the state education agency which will be actively and immediately implemented. Appoint a person to be in charge of such a plan within the state agency who will be committed to making the plan work and who will pursue aggressively its immediate and effective implementation.
- Hold workshops within the state education agency to assist all consultants in becoming aware of sex bias in order that positive steps may be taken to eliminate it from all aspects of education.
- Support the efforts of personnel within nigher education in efforts to eliminate biased attitudes relating to practices at institutions which prepare school personnel, thereby attacking negative trends at a major source.
 - Insure that personnel policies within the state agency be consistent with federal laws which make sex and race discrimination illegal. Personnel departments should acquaint themselves with new legislation which will equalize opportunities for women and other minorities and then make an effort to change existing and outmoded regulations which are invalid.
- Set positive examples of equality of opportunity by affirmative action in the areas of department hiring and promotion practices. Further, jobs which are available within the agency should be publicized so that females and other minorities would have an opportunity to apply.
- Appoint a representative number of women to serve on all policy-making committees.
- Assign a person to the human relations staff who will work with teachers and principals in sensitizing them to sex bias. Schedule workshops on sex bias with each public school system.



Seek to establish goals in the planning process which state that academic achievement of female students no longer shows a decline at the junior high school level.

In Local Education Agencies

- . Identify as an organizational priority the elimination of discrimination against women in promotions to administrative positions.
- Actively seek female applicants for the superintendency and other administrative jobs when interviewing for these positions.
- Assume initiative in surveying female personnel for interest in administrative positions and establish professional career ladders which permit promotions for women.
- Publicize openings in administrative positions.
- Analyze all personnel policies and eliminate any which directly or indirectly support discriminatory practices, including policies concerned with leaves of absence, pregnancy, part-time employment, and child care services.
- Analyze all educational policies and programs for their capacity to encourage female students to become professional and skilled workers and eliminate those practices which discourage or limit female students.
- Adopt affirmative action plans consonant with Executive Order No. 11246, Title IX, and the Equal Pay Act of 1963, all of which prohibit sex discrimination in all educational institutions receiving Federal aid.
- Provide in-service training programs for all school personnel in a conscious effort to assist in identification and correction of sex bias.
- Allocate comparable funds for boys' and girls' physical education programs.
- Make athletic facilities, equipment, and programs available to all students on an equal basis.
- Analyze curriculum materials for possible sex bias. Supplement sexist materials with those which avoid sex role stereotyping.
- Appoint an ombudswoman within the school system after consultation with appropriate women's groups in the community.
- Include a representative number of females and other minorities on all decision-making boards and committees which are appointed.

- . Urge women to run for positions on local boards of education.
- . Insure that all school facilities be planned or adapted and used in order that they serve both sexes equally.

In Schools of Education



- Recognize and make known discriminatory practices against women in public education as a problem for the profession and develop affirmative action plans to increase the number of women in leadership positions.
- Recruit women for faculty positions in schools of education, including departments of educational administration.
- Recruit women as students in programs related to leadership positions in education, including educational administration.
- . Provide flexible registration and enrollment provides in all degree programs.
- Insure that all female students receive, when necessary, financial support based on individual requirements, independent of marital status.
- Encourage placement offices to encourage women in teaching and administrative programs to achieve leadership positions in education.
- . Support political action designed to assure equal employment and promotion opportunities in public education.

In Individual Schools

- Encourage boys-and girls to enroll in any course that may interest them and to experiment with nontraditional courses.
- lar courses in women's studies. These can be incorporated into regular courses such as English and social studies or offered as minicourses or electives. Make contact with the state education agency for assistance in planning these courses.
- hncourage students to explore the pros and cons of their chosen careers and course preferences, analyzing factors other than traditional gender-related role expectations.
- Include the accomplishments and contributions of women in all history courses.
- Include the writings of reputable female authors in literature courses. Choose some literature at random and have students discuss the differences in the way female and male characters are presented.

- . Avoid sexist language. Substitute phrases like "ordinary people" for "the common man."
- Avoid sexist humor; i.e., humor which puts down a person because of his/her sex. (Sexist jokes damage the self-concept of girls and are as insulting to many females as "nigger jokes" are to blacks.)
- . Include nonsexist books and other media in school libraries. Examples are: FREE TO BE...YOU AND MF and THE CHALLENGE TO BECOME A DOCTOR: THE STORY OF ELIZABETH BLACKWELL. (See list of sources for nonsexist materials in the "Sexism in Instructional Materials" section of this source book.)
- Initiate and guide classroom activities designed to provide all students, regardless of sex, with opportunities to develop skills to the best of their abilities. Assign to both sexes such jobs as operating Al equipment, moving and using equipment, participating in tool, sewing, and cooking projects, and school patrol duties.
- . Supplant stereotyped bulletin boards with nonstereotyped ones.
- . Develop spelling and vocabulary sentences using nonstereot, ped language and roles.
- . Publish articles in student publications about mon and women in nontraditional roles.
- Avoid discriminatory terms, especially in the area of social studies, such as "prehistoric man," "early man," etc. and substitute "prehistoric people," "human beings," "settlers," and other terms which include women, children, and youth as part of the human race.
- . Use pictures on classroom walls which are interracial and which depict women and men, boys and girls in nonstereotypic roles.
- Emphasize the vital importance of women respecting other women. It is basic to remember that women who put down other women and who trade on their sexuality in lieu of competence limit the occupational opportunity for all women in their profession. Only by refusing to play the old sex games, and by insisting that people treat each other as equals can females accomplish their goal of equality for all.
- Allow boys and girls to participate together in as many school activisties as possible.
- . Assign classfoom leadership roles to both girls and boys.
- Pricourage students of both sexes to run for school offices if they so desire.
- . Discuss with students such topics as.

How many mothers work?



What else do mothers do with their time besides cooking and cleaning?

What do mothers do for their own enjoyment?

Are some occupations best suited for women' for men' Which ones: Why: Could women do "men's work" and vice versals If you think they cannot, give reasons.

What do you want to be doing in five, ten, twenty rear's from now? What do you think you will be doing?

What kinds of parts do women play on television should, and commercials?

Are there any women "Masters of Ceremony?" Name a show in which

the main star is a woman.

Of all the women you know, which one would you most like to be? Why? Of all the men you know, which one would you most like to be? Why?

What do mothers do for children? What do fathers do for children?

Does your teacher treat boys and girls differently? How? Why?

Do your parents treat the boys in your family differently from the girls? How? Why?

Would your parents treat you differently if you were a girl/boy?
How?

What do your parents want you to be when you grow up? What do you want to be?

What toys do you think are for girls? for boys? Have you ever wanted or ever had a toy that is supposed to be for the other sex?

How do you feel about a girl sho can run faster than a boy?

What sports are for girls? for boys?

Do you think a woman would be a good President of the United States? Why or why not?

Do you think it is more important for a girl to get married than a boy?

Have you ever seen a man cry? Have you ever seen a woman cry? How did you feel?



1:0

HOW SEXIST ARE YOU? A TEST FOR TEACHERS

This test for teachers may be useful as one approach toward the elimination of sexism in the public schools.

Directions: Answer the following questions Yes or No according to the way you behave. Complete the essay question (No. 11). Then score yourself as directed.

_		YES	<u>NO</u>
1.	Do you ask only boys to do heavy work and perform executive duties in the classroom, and only girls to do light work and secretarial duties?		*****
2.	Do you pity girls who are unable or unwilling to be fashionable?		
	Do you call special attention to girls who are fashionable?		
	Do you pity boys who are unable or unwilling to be athletic?		
	Do you call special attention to boys who are athletic?		
3.	Do you react negatively to boys who have long hair, or to girls who wear slacks?		
4.	Do you plan different activities or different adaptations of the same activity for boys and for girls, primarily because of sex?		-
5.	Does the content you use include more exciting role models for boys than for girls? Does this material stereotype women as housewives, mothers, or workers in menial or supportive positions?		
6.	Do you ever use such slang terms as: sissy, tomboy, chick, or broad?		
7.	Do you ever say, "Boys shouldn't hit girls," or "Ladies don't talk that way," or "Ladies before gentlemen"?	anadhmir am	
8.	Do you expect girls to be more verbal and artistic than boys, or boys to be more mathematical and scientific than girls?		
9.	Do you feel it is more important to help boys sort out career options than to help girls do the same?		



s.	YES	<u>NO</u>
Do you encourage boys more than girls to pursue highly technical careers?		
Do you tend to discipline girls verbally and leniently and boys physically and strictly?	•	

11. Essay Question: They may act exactly the same way, but they are called: absent-minded if they are men and scatter-brained if they are wonen; intellectually curious if they are men and nosey if they are women; planners if they are men and schemers if they are women; sensitive if they are men, and emotional if they are women; logical if they are men, and intuitive if they are women.

Directions: Respond logically or intuitively to the statement you have just read.

How to score yourself: Give yourself five points for each No answer, and 30 points for good logic on the essay question (0 points for intuition). Do not mark on a curve. If your score is below 90, meet with your colleagues to plan your own consciousness-raising group.



10.

ORGANIZATIONS WORKING TO ELIMINATE SEXISM IN EDUCATION

National Organizations

Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education National Foundation for the Improvement of Education 1156 Fifteenth Street, N. W. Suite 918 Washington, D. C. 20009

Project on the Status and Education of Women American Association of Colleges 1818 "R" Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20009

DuShane Fund National Education Association 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20036

Teachers Rights
National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20036

Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) 538 National Press Building Washington, D. C. 20004

Emma Willard Task Force on Education Box 14229 Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414

Women's Bureau United States Department of Labor Washington, D. C. 20210

Office for Civil Rights
United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Washington, D. C.

League of Women Voters 1730 "M" Street, N. ... Washington, D. C. 2 36

Wage and Hour Division United States Department of Labor Washington, D. C.

Common Cause 2030 "M" Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20036



Education Task Force National Organization of Women (NOW) 617 49th Street Brooklyn, New York 11220

North Carolina Organizations

Human Relations and Student Affairs Area North Carolina Department of Public Instruction Raleigh, North Carolina

New Pioneers Program North Carolina Department of Public Instruction Raleigh, North Carolina

Commission on the Education and Employment of Women Department of Art, Culture, and History Raleigh, North Carolina

Children's 100'Project Learning Institute of North Carolina (LINC) Lamond Avenue Durham, North Carolina

Continuing Education Program Duke University Durham, North Carolina

Lollipop Power Box 1171 Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514

League of Women Voters (Raleigh/Wake County Chapter) 617 Macon ce Raleigh, North Carolina

North Carolina Council of Administrative Women in Education Henrietta Fox, President Lumberton Public Schools Lumberton, North Carolina 28358

North Carolina Human Relations Commission Glenwood Avenue Raleigh, North Carolina

Raleigh Community Relations Commission 228 West Hargett Street Raleigh, North Carolina



SELECTED, ANNOTATED READINGS ON SEX DISCRIMINATION

ERIC Documents

Bem, Sandra L. and Daryl J. TRAINING THE WOMAN TO KNOW HER PLACE: THE SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS OF WOMEN IN THE WORLD OF WORK. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Education, Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services, 1973. 29 p. (ED 082 098)

This report offers suggestions to the counselor who must acquaint young women with their increased options. It points out how females' opportunities in employment have been limited by America's sex-role ideology.

Dale, Charlene T. and others. WANTED--MORE WOMEN: WHERE ARE THE WOMEN SUPERINTENDENTS? Washington, D. C.: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1973. 29 p. (ED 084 620)

The Council proposes that a new flow of qualified women into administrative and policymaking positions will enliven the educational establishment. The difficulties of transition in schools will be easier for those employers who take steps early to inform themselves of the issues relating to discrimination and who initiate positive action to correct inequities.

Diamond, Esther E. THE MASCULINITY-FEMININITY SCALE IN INTEREST MEASURE-MENT: AN IDEA WHOSE TIME HAS PASSED. (Paper presented at American Psychological Association Convention, 1972) 11 p. (ED 069 795)

The lag that exists between traditional measures of masculinity and feminirity in occupational interests and the changing role of women in the world of work is discussed.

Goldstein, Janet Mendell. FROM PANDORA TO NORA: LITERATURE AND WOMEN'S LIBERATION. (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, 1973) 11 p. (ED 088 099)

This paper describes a ten-week elective course for high school seniors entitled "Literature and Women's Liberation." The course begins with an introduction to the great authors of the Western literary tradition and moves toward a study of traditional stereotypes of women in contemporary society.

GUIDELINES FOR IMPROVING THE IMAGE OF WOMEN IN TEXTBOOKS. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972. 12 p. (ED 076 957)

General guidelines for the text and illustrations of textbooks are; (1) the actions and achievements of women should be recognized; (2) females should be given the same respect as males; (3) abilities, traits, interests, and activities should not be assigned on the basis of male or female stereotypes. A section on avoiding sexist language is included.



Hilton, Thomas L. and Bergand, Gosta W. SEX DIFFERENCES IN MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT--A LONGITUDINAL STUDY. (No publisher) 1970. 20 p. (ED 069 789)

A study which began in 1901 at E. T. S. indicated that at grade 5 there were no differences in achievement in math, but thereafter the boys pulled ahead. Clearly this difference is not innate, since girls start out as well. The hypothesis left to explore is that girls' achievement decreases because of their social conditioning.

Hurst, Gayle. SEX BIAS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LITERATURE ANTHOLOGIES. St. Louis, Missouri: National Organization for Women, 1973. 22 p. (ED 085 763)

One hundred and seventy-one selections used in eighth grade literature were analyzed. Most of the stories depicted women in the traditional roles of housewife and mother. The women depicted as professionals were "old maid" schoolteachers and heartless people. Another stereotype consisted of the woman plotting to catch a man. Almost half of the selections did not have a female character.

Jacklin, Carol Nagy and Maccoby, Eleanor E. SEX DIFFERENCES IN INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES: A REASSESSMENT AND A LOOK AT SOME NEW EXPLANATIONS. (Paper presented at American Educational Research Association, 1972) 22 p. (ED 063 545)

It is concluded that girls learn language earlier, and may continue to have a small lead over boys. In spatial abilities, boys begin to excel in fourth grade. It is noted that the reason for boys' higher achievement rates in high school may be influenced by the differential dropout rate.

McDowell, Margaret B. MALE AND FEMALE CHAUVINISM IN THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE. (Paper presented at the Midwest Modern Language Association, 1972) 8 p. (ED 077 031)

Teachers should enable students to recognize for themselves instances of sex bias and to guard against the acceptance of ready-made attitudes. Through an exploration of literature, folk humor, tv programming, advertisements, and other media, students can focus upon implied prejudice and the sexual stereotypes which are thus perpetuated.

McLure, Gail T. SEX ROLE STEREOTYPING AND EVALUATION: A SYSTEMS APPROACH. (Paper presented at the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools Conference, March 1973) 23 p. (ED 078 326)

The author introduces a systems approach to the examination of sex stereotyping, using the CIPP evaluation model. The paper visualizes a school system and examines areas where institutionalized stereotyping may occur in setting goals, in the curriculum, in the allocation of resources, and in the teaching-learning situation.

Makosky, Vivian P. FEAR OF SUCCESS, SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION OF THE TASK, AND COMPETITIVE CONDITION AS VARIABLES AFFECTING WOMEN'S PERFORMANCE IN ACHIEVEMENT-ORIENTED SITUATIONS. (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, 1972) 17 p. (ED 069 999)

This study was based on the hypothesis that for women, success in competitive achievement situations may produce negative social sanctions, resulting in a motive to avoid success; i.e., a female intentionally losing in competition with a male to make herself seem more feminine.



Mapp, Patricia. WOMEN IN APPRENTICESHIP--WHY NOT? Madison, Wisconsin: State Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations, 1975. 268 p. (ED 086 880)

The project goals were to isolate, analyze and minimize barriers to the participation of women in the skilled trades. Brochures and a film aimed at dispelling myths were produced. Employer surveys confirmed that prejudice and ignorance of laws had to be confronted with facts.

Moberg, Verne. A CHILD'S RIGHT TO EQUAL READING. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1973. 13 p. (ED 089 231)

The booklet presents techniques for group discussions on sexual sterectypes; examines sex bias in children's books, and examines the possibility of alternative children's literature supportive of sexual equality.

National Education Association. WHAT IS AFFIRMATIVE ACTION? COMBATING DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1973. 20 p. (ED 089 457)

This booklet focuses on discrimination in employment, specifically on combating this form of discrimination through affirmative action plans.

Rhome, Frances Dodson. MANGLISH: WHAT'S IT ALL ABOUT? (Paper presented at the Midwest Modern Language Association, 1972) 18 p. (ED 077 030). The English language is male oriented, states the author. Sex stereotypes are manifested in occupational titles and societal attitudes. School texts perpetuate this sexism; however, language is beginning to reflect social change due to the women's movement.

Rose, Karel. SLEEPING BEAUTY AWAKES: CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND SEX ROLE MYTHS. (Paper presented at the National Council of Teachers of English Annual Meeting, 1973) 9 p. (LD 089 522)

Several studies of children's books revealed that girls are characterized as dependent, thus they consistently take an inactive role. The sexual myths which are present in children's literature have far-reaching implications for intellectual achievement, and are destructive to the female self-image.

Sheridan, Harriet W., ed. FOCUS ON READING. Northfield, Minnesota: Minnesota Council of Teachers of English. 65 p. (ED 088 026)

One section of this report, "A Woman's Place: What's Cooking in Junior High School English Anthologies," reports the results of research to determine the existence of stereotyped or biased portrayals of women in books that teachers may be using. Another relevant section is "About the Female of the Species," which looks at the portrayal of women in children's books.

Sizemore, Barbara. WELL THE WOMAN ADMINISTRATOR MAKE A DIFFERENCE? (Paper presented at AASA Convention, 1973) 5 p. (ED 078 497)

Many studies have shown women to be able administrators; however, women are found less and less in school administration. There are many reasons for this situation; largely, myths which are unfounded but which are part of our value system. Dr. Sizemore, Superintendent of District of Columbia Public Schools, urges women to be more aggressive in pursuing administrative positions.



Sutton, William A. SEXUAL FAIRNESS IN LANGUAGE. Muncie, Indiana: Ball State University English Department, 1973. 12 p. (ED 089 301)

The following aspects of sexism in language are presented: (1) the undesirable practice of using male terms to represent the whole population should be changed; (2) elimination of language which suggests that women are better or worse than men; (3) occupational titles should not carry any suggestion of the sex of the worker.

Books and Pamphlets

American Association of University Women. Status of Women Committee. JACK AND JILL. Available from Bonnie Zimmerman, Box 403, Livermore, California 94550. 28 p. (\$1.00)

This pamphlet about sex role stereotypes was written for teachers, counselors, school volunteers, community organizations, parents, and students.

Association of American Colleges. Project on the Status and Education of Women. WHAT CONSTITUTES EQUALITY FOR WOMEN IN SPORT? FEDERAL LAW PUTS WOMEN IN THE RUNNING. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1974. 21 p.

This paper outlines some issues related to equal opportunity for women in sport, gives examples of some situations that might be reassessed, and discusses alternatives.

Dallas Women's Coalition. A STUDY OF SEX DISCRIMINATION IN THE DALLAS INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT. Available from Kay Bieberdorf, 6239 Aberdeen Avenue, Dallas, Texas 75230.

A study of sex-role stereotyping as it operates within one school district, this is an example of the way a community organization investigated and made recommendations for the local school board.

DICK AND JANE AS VICTIMS: SEX STEREOTYPING IN CHILDREN'S READERS. Princeton, New Jersey: Women on Words and Images, 1972.

A detailed report with statistics on the fifteen most widely used series of elementary school readers is presented for use by elementary teachers and librarians.

Emma Willard Task Force on Education. SEXISM IN EDUCATION, Third Edition, Revised. Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Task Force, 1973. 87 p. (\$6.00) Written by a group of women who had a common interest in education, this book consists of information and tools which can be utilized in the classroom to explore sex bias.

Federbush, Marcia. LET THEM ASPIRE: A PLEA AND PROPOSAL FOR EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY FOR MALES AND FEMALES IN THE ANN ARBOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS, Second-Edition. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Available from the author, 1000 Cedar Bend Drive, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105, 1971. (\$1.75)

Among the recommendations made by this citizens committee were: (1) opening all courses to both sexes; (2) planning facilities to include



both sexes; (3) a components approach to school athletics, including athletic scholarships; (4) changing the anachronistic guidelines for sex education and family living, which stresses normal, middle class (usually white) families with two parents; (5) give recognition to the single-parent households in which so many students are being raised.

Feminists on Children's Media. LITTLE MISS MUFFET FIGHTS BACK. New York: The Feminists, 1971.

The booklet is an annotated listing of 200 fiction and non-fiction non-sexist books for children from 3 to 15. This is a good resource for school librarians

Frazier, Nancy and Sadker, Myra. SEXISM IN SCHOOL AND SOCIETY. New York: llarper & Row, 1973.

This book was written especially for teachers, but it is useful to anyone concerned with the issues.

Gershuny, Henny Lee. SEXIST SEMANTICS: AN INVESTIGATION OF MASCULINE AND FEMININE NOUNS AND PRONOUNS IN DICTIONARY SENTENCES THAT ILLUSTRATE WORD USAGE AS A REFLECTION OF SEX-ROLE. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1973. 139 p. (ph.D. Dissertation)

The author systematically sampled 2,028 sentences from THE RANDOM HOUSE DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. It was discovered that sentences with solely male gender words outnumbered sentences with solely feminine words by three to one.

Gersoni-Stavn, Diane, ed. SEXISM AND YOUTH. New York: R. R. Bowker Company, 1974. 468 p.

Diane Gersoni-Stavn has carefully gathered many useful publications and given them coherence in this useful and informative anthology on sexism. Part I deals with language, a major socializing agent; Part II considers the general atmosphere of schools and the sexist practices of counselors, teachers, and administrators; Part III is on sex bias in children's books; and Part IV discusses socialization of children.

Goldstein, Stephen R. PUPILS. Popeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education (NOLPE), 19/3. 45 p. Chapter 3 of The Yearbook of School Law, 45 p.

New developments in school law include the rights of girls, the separation of students in school and school activities on the basis of sex, and the rule-making power of interscholastic associations.

Harrison, Barbara Grizzuti. UNLEARNING THE LIE: SEXISM IN SCHOOL. New of York: Liveright, 1973. 176 p.

This book relates the story of an experiment at Woodward School in Brooklyn in nonsexist education. The lie referred to in the title is that girls are impately passive, unaggressive, supportive, and domestic, and that their nature is to need, to want, to wait; that boys are innately dominant, achieving, adventurous, and aggressive, and that their nature is to seek, to control, to conquer.



Jay, Winifred Tom. SEX STEREOTYPING IN SELECTED MATHEMATICS TEXTBOOKS FOR GRADES TWO, FOUR, AND SIX. (D.Ed. Dissertation) Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1973. 168 p.

Twelve textbooks listed on Hawaii's Approved Instructional Materials List were chosen for this study which revealed that elementary math textbooks contain sex bias.

MacEgan, Phyllis T. LIBERATING YOUNG CHILDREN FROM SEX ROLES. Boston, Massachusetts: New England Free Press. 22 p.
Ways in which preschool and child care workers can begin to eliminate sexism from their classrooms are presented.

MacLeod, Jennifer and Silverman, Sandy. YOU WON'T DO--WHAT TEXTBOOKS ON U. S. GOVERNMENT TEACH HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS. Pittsburgh: KNOW, Inc., 1973. Civics textbooks are leaving women out, putting women down, ignoring subjects important to women, and telling girls that the "smoke-filled rooms of the U. S. Government are for men only." Eight texts were analyzed and a consistent pattern of bias against women was found. The booklet also includes suggestions for what to do until textbooks are revised.

Minnesota Library Association. Children and Young Peoples Section. LIT-TLE MISS MUFFET HANGS IN THERE. Minneapolis, Minnesota: The Association, 1973.

This is an updating and expansion of the original list, by the Committee on Feminism in Children's Books of the MLA.

Minnesota State Board of Education. ELIMINATING SEX BIAS IN EDUCATION. St. Paul, Minnesota: The Board, 1972. 8 p.

The official policy and proposed action of the Minnesota State Board of Education is presented.

National Education Association. Teacher Rights Section. EDUCATION FQR SURVIVAL. FINAL REPORT, SEX ROLE STEREOTYPES PROJECT - OE-0-72-2507. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1973. 96 p.

This report summarizes one year's efforts to examine sex role stereotypes in elementary and secondary education. Proceedings of a national conference are presented.

National Organization for Women. New York City Chapter. REPORT UN SEX BIAS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. THIRD EDITION. New York, 1973. 102 p. (\$2.95) Sex bias in the public schools is reported in three major areas: administration, curricula, and attitudes. Areas of curriculum bias which were investigated were vocational-to inical education, athletics, educational television, career counseling, sex education, and textbook and toy bias.

Rothchild, Nina. SEXISM IN SCHOOLS: A HANDBOOK FOR ACTION. Mantomedi, Minnesota: The author, 1973. 65 p. (\$2.00)

This booklet offers helpful suggestions for eliminating sexism in schools. Section One reviews the structure and functions of school personnel and includes "homework" guides for becoming familiar with your school's internal operation; Section Two explains budgets; Section Three outlines strategies for action; Sections Four, Five, and Six list specific school practices and policies with proposals for change.



Stacy, Judith and others. AND JILL CAME TUMBLING AFTER: SLXISM IN AMERICAN EDUCATION. New York: Dell, 1974. 461 p.

The forty-two selected readings by various scholars present specific information on how schools explicitly and implicitly foster sexual stereotyping of both boys and girls. The readings point out ways in which schools--from preprimary to graduate--might proceed to solutions.

Stanchfield, Jo M. SEX DIFFERENCES IN LEARNING TO READ. Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1973. 34 p.

A number of research studies are cited which compare sex differences in school achievement, particularly in reading. All the studies found that girls achieved significantly higher than boys in reading. The author concludes from her research that boys view reading as a feminine pursuit and this adversely affects their reading progress. By eliminating sex-role stereotyping from the elementary school, the gap may be narrowed in the disparity between the sexes in reading.

Thomas, Marlo, Steinem, Gloria, and Pogrebin, Letty Cottin. FRLE TO BL... YYOU AND ME. New York: McGraw, 1974. (\$4.95 paperbound)

A two-year project sponsored by the Ms. Foundation produced this book, a record, and a tv special. All were designed to help children (and adults) break free of the barriers which limit them.

TODAY'S CHANGING ROLES: AN APPROACH TO NON-SEXIST TEACHING; TEACHER RESOURCES WITH CURRICULUM RELATED ACTIVITIES. Washington, D. C.: The National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, 1974. 108 p. Based on the premise that the images in children's books and other media carry important messages about the way we expect children to view the world, these curriculum materials were designed for grades 1-12 to supplement existing instructional materials.

Journal Articles

E Baruch, Grace K. "The Traditional Feminine Role: Some Negative Lifects," THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR 21:285-289, March 1974.

The research findings presented here show how girls and women are not encouraged to fulfill their intellectual potential. It urges that counselors provide girls (and boys) with opportunities to explore alternate patterns as fully as possibly.

Chase, Dennis J. "Sexism in Textbooks?" NATION'S SCHOOLS 90:31-35, December 1972.

Examples of sex dias in textbooks are shown and language guidelines from Scott Foresman are listed. Recommended activities for students are also presented.

Dewey, Cindy Rice. "Exploring Interests: A Non-Sexist Method," PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL 52:311-315, January 1974.

Ms. Dewey has developed a non-sexist testing technique for use in counseling males and females, which she discusses in this article.



DeWolf, Rose. "The Battle for Coed Teams," WOMENSPORTS 1:61-63, July 1974.

John Pittenger, former coach of the men's squash team at Franklin and

Marshall College, takes a mighty swing at inequities in women's sports

programs in Pennsylvania schools as he argues that separate is not equal.

Engle, Kathleen M. "The Greening of Girls' Sports," NATION'S SCHOOLS 92: 27-34, September 1973.

This special issue focuses on the drive to eliminate sexism in school sports. Expenditures for boys' and girls' athletic programs, coaching salaries, facilities, and programs offered are discussed. A physician discusses the potentials for girls in competitive sports, and a girl who joined an all-male team is interviewed.

Fillmer, H. Thompson. "Consciousness Raising Sexist Teaching--What You Can Do." TEACHER 91:30-32, January 1974.

If you are increasingly aware of the sex role stereotyping which is all too common in the American elementary school classroom, you may want to consider this prescription for change—in yourself and in the materials you teach with. A test to determine attitudes is printed and a checklist for evaluating sexism in reading textbooks is given.

Gibbons, Anne R. and Eaton, Deborah. "Exploring the Nature and Extent of Sex Bias," AMERICAN EDUCATION 10:54-35, April 1974.

The National Institute of Education, whose mandate pledges its support of equal educational opportunity for all, is now supporting research into the educational needs and rights of the woman. Most of the fifteen NIE funded research projects focus on learned behavior and how it can be modified to lessen the effect of sex bias on women.

Higgs, M. and Stewig, J. "Girls Grow Up--A Study of Sexism in Children's Literature," LIBRARY JOURNAL 98:236-241, January 15, 1973.

This survey included 154 children's picture books. The conclusion they reached was that women do indeed play a subordinate, home-related role. This is significant since researchers have established that sex role identification is almost complete when a child reaches the age of five.

Horner, Mattina S. "Toward an Understanding of Achievement-Related Conflicts in Women," JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES 28:157-176, Spring 1972.

Dr. Horner, noted sociologist and president of Radcliffe College, discusses her research on the female motive to avoid success. The hypothesis she tested and proved was that females perceive intellectual achievement, competition, independence, and competence as masculine characteristics. Because of their social conditioning, they try to avoid these characteristics.

Howe, Florence. "Educating Women; No More Sugar and Spice," SATURDAY RE-VIIW 54:76, October 16, 1971.

Specific examples of discrimination in elementary textbooks are cited. Research studies conducted by psychologists and sociologists which verify sex stereotyping are discussed. Of special interest were the experiments conducted in fifth grade classrooms by Paul Torrance, noted psychologist interested in creativity, which showed how sex-role conditioning inhibited student participation in certain areas.



Hoyt, Jane. "Target: Sex Bias in Education," AMERICAN EDUCATION 10:6-9, August/September 1974.

The proposed regulations for Title IX are discussed.

Jacobs, Carol and others. "The Schools and Sex-Role Stereotyping," Special section. TODAY'S EDUCATION 61:20-46, December 1972.

Features on sexism in the elementary school, children's perceptions of sex roles, high school feminist studies, and the stereotyping behaviors of teachers are among those included in this special issue.

Kraft, Linda. "Lost Herstory--The Treatment of Women in Children's Encyclopedias," LIBRARY JOURNAL 98:218-227, January 15, 1973.

The five encyclopedias chosen for this study were WORLD BOOK, BRITAN-NICA JUNIOR, NEW BOOK OF KNOWLEDGE, COMFTON'S, and MERIT STUDENTS ENCYCLOPEDIA. Her research concluded that these books do not provide adequate and accurate information about the roles of women and that women are presented in an inferior way.

Levy, Betty and Stacey, Judith. "Sexism in the Elementary School: A Backward and Forward Look," PHI DELTA KAPPAN 54:105-109+, October 1973. The authors summarize the existing documentation in the area of sex typing in elementary schools.

Lyon, Catherine Dillon and Saario, Terry N. "Women in Public Education: Sexual Discrimination in Promotions," PHI DELTA KAPPAN 54:120-123, October 1973.

Differential advancement for males and females within the ranks is discussed and 21 recommendations for policy makers are offered.

Millsom, Carol. "Women and Education," EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP 31:99-100, November 1973.

The lead article of a special section, this uses statistics to show how women employed in the profession of education earn less money than do their male counterparts and hold fewer administrative positions. It cites examples which illustrate how an unfair burden is placed on both sexes when society requires that they adhere to narrowly defined sex roles.

Nolte, M. Chester. "Women in Education: A Long, Long Way to Go," AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL 160:38-39, October 1973.

Written by an expert on school law, this article searches the case literature of sex-related litigation that has bedeviled school officials recently.

Norman, Blanche. "A Full Role for Women Educators," NORTH CAROLINA EDUCATION 3:20-21, December 1972.

The reasons cited for the lack of women administrators won't stand close inspection, this author found. A North Carolina research study showed that North Carolina women in leadership positions are more intelligent, more abstract thinkers, and have higher scholastic capacity than 91.8 percent of the population.



Plotsky, Frances A. and Goad, Rosemary. "Encouraging Women Through a Career Conference," PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL 52:486-488, March 1974. The purpose of the conference described here was to challenge female students to aspire to greater positions of responsibility. Successful professional women took part on the program in order to provide role models for the students.

Rosenberg, Max. "Evaluate Your Textbooks for Racism, Sexism!" EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP 31:107-109, November 1973.

Dr. Rosenberg heads a special ASCD working group on bias in instructional materials. He stresses that educators should play an active role to assure that their school textbooks meet the needs of students in a pluralistic, democratic society. He gives suggestions for evaluating textbooks and suggests that teachers reject and demand replacement for those which do not meet the test.

Saario, Terry N. and others. "Sex Role Stereotyping in the Public Schools," HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW 43:386-416, August 1973.

Section One documents the extent and kind of sex typing in K-3 textbooks of four major publishers; Section Two raises the issue of sex bias in item content and language usage in educational testing and shows the presence of sex typing in test batteries from major test publishers; Section Three discusses the presence and ramifications of different curriculum patterns for males and females.

Simon, Sidney and others. "Where Do They Stand?" INSTRUCTOR 84:110-112+, August/September 1974.

Values clarification expert Sidney Simon suggests strategies for helping children explore their beliefs about sexism.

Steinhilber, August W. "What the New Anti-Sex Bias Rules Mean for Schools," THE AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL 161:20-21, August 1974.

An interpretation of Title IX is presented.

Stewig, John and Higgs, Margaret. "Girls Grow Up to be Mommies: A Study of Sexism in Children's Literature," SCHOOL LIBRARY JOURNAL 44:49, January 1973.

An analysis of 154 picture books substantiates the claims of sexual bias. Women are not depicted in the rich variety of professional roles in which they are engaged today.

Trecker, Janice Law. "Women in U. S. History Text Books," SOCIAL EDUCATION 35:35+, March 1971.

Based on information included in the most popular high school history texts, the author concluded that women have been almost completely omitted from the study of U. S, history. It is a useful source for the names of women who should be included in history courses.

Vestin, Margaret. "School, Instruction, and Sex Role Questions," WESTERN EUROPEAN EDUCATION 4:285-306, Winter 1972/1973.

The article analyzes Swedish efforts to introduce into the schools programs of study based on the assumption that women and men will have the same roles in the future with regards to parent role and career orientation.

